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The Education Digest

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JANUARY, 1938

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WHAT IS GENERAL EDUCATION?

CHARLES H. JUDD

In the Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals

IN the beginning, it is necessary to point out the inadequacies of two generally accepted views which exercise a powerful influence on the thinking of the present generation. First, the definition of the highest scholarship which is widely accepted emphasizes specialization more than breadth. It is recognized that the time has passed when anyone can hope to compass the whole or any large part of human knowledge. Despairing of knowing all things, the present generation has magnified the importance of exhaustive knowledge in a narrow field. The world owes much to the efforts of specialists, but it must be admitted that the modern concentration of attention on narrow fields often results in atrophied personalities. Somewhere in life there must be breadth and comprehensiveness of thinking.

Second, the European tradition of education, which came to this continent in Colonial days, is still intrenched in the thinking of the American people. In Europe, access to education above the elementary level is accorded almost exclusively to the upper classes. And the traditions of aristocracy still hold sway in some measure over the thinking even of this democratic country. It is scholarly to preach sermons, however vapid. It is scholarly to plead before a judge and jury, however misleading the plea may be. It is scholarly to know the names of many drugs even though one uses nothing in practice but bread pills. Skill in mechanical lines and success in trade are thought of as minor achievements requiring less dignified forms of intelligence than the traditional professions.

In this country, those who are disposed to perpetuate aristocratic traditions have been wise enough to employ a high-sounding democratic name for the peculiar brand of education which they regard as appropriate for themselves and their children —they call it "liberal" education. They use the word which in Rome referred to the free citizen. All other kinds of education they label "vocational"—an adjective reminiscent of ancient slavery. They forget that the subjects which they now describe as liberal were at one time clearly recognized as preprofessional and in that sense vocational. For example, grammar and rhetoric. "Rhetoric" comes from the Greek *rhetor,* meaning "orator." The sons of Greek and

Roman aristocratic families made headway in the practical profession of politics only after they had become proficient in oratory.

Some day the people of the United States will recognize that the European tradition and the European definition of liberal education have no more place in America than has a monarchical form of government or its illegitimate descendant, Fascism. They will recognize that the American educational institution which attempts to maintain a Latin-geometry curriculum is deceiving itself and its patrons by wearing the last tattered fragments of the toga of aristocracy. What this country needs today, and needs sorely, is liberal education appropriate to present-day life.

From this point on it will be well to avoid the conflict of emotions often resulting from the use of the terms "liberal" and "vocational." For the purpose of marking off from each other two aspects of education the terms "general education" and "vocational education" are far better.

There is one division of the educational system, whose purposes and contents are not seriously questioned by anyone, which is devoted entirely to general education. That is the elementary school. In it children learn those fundamental arts of civilized life which make it possible for them to share in the culture of the race.

Why does the secondary school fail to take the natural course of continuing general education? The answer is that until recently the secondary school of the United States, like European secondary schools, was not a general school; it was an exclusive school, consciously directing its efforts to the preparation of a few students who expected to enter the learned professions.

If the secondary school were now to turn about and say that it intends to administer general education in keeping with the new, non-European ideals of the United States, what obstacles would it encounter? First, the teachers in the secondary schools are all specialists, and most of them are acquainted only with the subjects handed down by tradition. Second, the parents who were brought up under the influence of tradition have a lingering desire to see their children initiated into some kind of aristocracy. Parents usually insist that their children study what European upper classes have always studied.

The problem which confronts the educational system of this country is clear. There must be invented and installed a new kind of general education, and the relation of general to vocational education must be made clear. There ought to be no conflict between the two. General education at the secondary school level has the same purpose as general education at the elementary level. It is the education which everyone must have to live intelligently in a modern community. The trouble has been that general education has been con-

fused with traditional preparation for the professions. Traditional secondary education is clearly vocational education of a preprofessional type.

What should be the contents of a program of secondary education suited to American conditions? The new curriculum should include, first, certain general courses needed by all members of a modern democratic society—a compact review of the sciences, natural and social; courses on the duties of a member of a community; courses in the literature which records the experiences and ideals of the race; and a course in social psychology describing individuals and their place in the social order. The curriculum should include, second, vocational education—the cultivation of the skills necessary in the trades and professions. There are a number of levels in both general and vocational education. The lower levels will suffice for some individuals, but the lower levels should not be narrowly vocational. General education should be administered in some degree to those who leave school early.

General and vocational education must unite. The spirit of courses preparing for vocations is not opposed to that of general education. Vocational education need not be inferior in scholarship. Courses preparing for vocations can be made as suitable for the cultivation of human minds as any courses in the curriculum. All that is necessary to make possible a rational organization of the curriculum is a clear recognition of what the individual needs in his two capacities—first, as a participating unit in community government and social life, and, second, in his capacity as a productive worker.

[*Charles H. Judd is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago. Reported from the* Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the N. E. A., *XXI (October, 1937), 5-16.*]

A STUDY by C. C. Crawford and J. A. Carmichael reported in the *Elementary School Journal* for November, 1937, revealed no significant difference in scores on the Stanford Achievement Test in Grades V-VIII during three years with home study and three years after it was abolished. The pupils without home study, however, although equally well prepared in subject matter, suffered a drop in high school marks to the extent of .41 of a mark, which was highly significant from a statistical viewpoint. This finding suggests strongly the interpretation that evening leisure once enjoyed is hard to give up or that, if home study is once abolished, the pupil has difficulty in returning to it, according to the authors.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING FOR THE DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS UNDER THE GEORGE-DEEN ACT

FREDERICK G. NICHOLS

In the Journal of Business Education

FOR the past 20 years, under federal and state sponsorship, vocational training for industrial, agricultural, and home-making pursuits has been available. At last that neglected portion of the field of commercial pursuits, called distributive occupations, has been provided for in the George-Deen Act.

At the outset I want to emphasize the fact that distributive occupations lie within the broader field of business education and not within some other field. It is evident from the act itself that the framers intended to provide training for a field otherwise unprovided for. And it is clear from a statement recently released by the United States Office of Education that training for the distributive occupations is regarded by that office as belonging in the field of commercial education and not in one of the other fields of vocational training. If state plans include proper requirements as to the qualifications of supervisors and teachers in this new field, there will be no question as to placement of the new service in the state organization.

The Office of Education defines distributive occupations as "those followed by workers engaged in, or in direct contact with consumers when (*a*) distributing to consumers, retailers, jobbers, wholesalers, and others, the products of farm and industry; and (*b*) managing, operating, or conducting a commercial service or personal service business."

Distributive occupations do not include clerical occupations nor trades and industrial work. However, it is worthy of note that the excluded subjects of bookkeeping, business writing, typing, and business arithmetic may be taught as related work if they may properly be regarded as "supplemental to the occupational needs of the workers in distributive occupations." No doubt commercial law, business organization and management, business economics, and commercial geography may be taught also, if taught as aids to preparation for a distributive occupation.

This is a most liberal interpretation of the act. It will permit the organization of any reasonable program of training in this new field.

Since federal money under the George-Deen Act can be spent only in *part-time* schools or classes, just what is meant by *part-time* as used in this connection? Three kinds of part-time classes are approved as coming within the limitations of the act: (1) "Classes for workers who can leave their daily employment for only a few hours each week"; (2) "Short intensive courses to be taught to any group of distributive workers during the period when they are not employed"; and (3) "Classes organ-

ized for continuous instruction on a cooperative school-and-employment schedule for employees who can leave their daily employment to attend school not to exceed 50 percent of the working time."

What kinds of people are within the contemplation of the act? (1) Boys and girls who wish to enter a distributive occupation and who are qualified to take training for it. (2) Youths and adults who are already in distributive occupations and who wish to learn how to do their jobs better, or to prepare for advancement. There are certain restrictions as to age. Evening courses are open to persons over 16. For part-time courses a lower age-limit of 14 years is prescribed.

The first need to be met is that of competent leadership. It is assumed that administrative leadership is already available in every state in the person of the state director of vocational education, whatever his official title. A supervisor of this new field should be added to the staff of the state vocational education department if the funds available for the new program are sufficient for a reasonably comprehensive one.

Where are supervisors and teachers coming from? Few commercial teachers can meet the standards which are sure to be set up, but for many years a few schools of retailing have been training men and women for just the kind of work that must be done. Most of those who have pursued university retailing courses were college graduates before they began their technical training. Many of them were teachers who desired to shift into the business field. Such graduates would be able to meet any reasonable professional requirement. No such difficulty confronts us in selecting teachers as confronted those who, 20 years ago, had to choose teachers for the other vocational fields.

It is assumed that minimal specifications for teachers in the new field will include:

1. Practical working experience—perhaps five years.

2. Technical education—at least a year of post-high school work.

3. General education—at least two post-high school years.

4. Professional education — at least the equivalent of an evening school year totaling 100 hours and two summer sessions totaling 60 hours.

5. Teaching experience—but not necessarily in schools; that had in merchandising establishments will do.

In every city of size there are many people who can meet these specifications. Even a complete college education could be required without unduly restricting the supply of available teachers. But such a requirement would deprive schools of the services of some especially competent teachers, since many who have been most successful in personnel work have come up from the ranks.

In a field so broad as this one

there can be no end of *appropriate* courses that might be given. But limited funds will make necessary much careful picking and choosing. While a score of distributing activities—brokerage, wholesale, importing, etc.—are within the scope of the act, it seems wise to make a beginning in the field of retailing, since this is the field which most directly and extensively affects the consumer's life, since many more people are employed in retailing than in other distributive activities, and since almost none of these workers has had any training except what he has been able to pick up on the job, and consequently retail store service, is, and always has been, notoriously deficient.

After we have narrowed our field of operation to the retail department of distribution, we still have the task of deciding where to place the emphasis at the outset in this particular field. Naturally we shall want to attack the problem where the need is greatest. On the other hand we shall want to make a beginning at the point where there is greatest assurance of the cooperation needed to insure success. The former desire would lead us to concentrate on the problem of the small store as far as extension courses were concerned. The latter would incline us toward the development of courses for department store workers, since the management of such stores can and will render invaluable service in the development of these courses. Somewhere between these extremes a safe pathway must be found.

Several score of evening courses for big-store workers could be organized. These should be of varying lengths and in scientifically determined sequences. For example, there might be a course in trait development, one in meeting people over the counter, one in making a sale, another in oral English, another in the clerical work of selling, still another in delivery service, one in textiles, one in glassware and china, one in rugs and carpets, another in adjustments, another in window dressing, and so on almost indefinitely. It is quite possible that such departmentalized unit courses will serve the needs of small grocers, druggists, hardware men, meat sellers, and bakers quite as well as more specialized courses, except in matters of management.

Do not overlook the possibility of taking over the training for moderately large stores, in whole or in part. Under the act, your teachers may be sent into the stores if the training they give is under your direct supervision and control. Go ahead with an extension program to meet the needs of workers in all departments of retailing. The nucleus of personnel for such classes is right now enrolled in your evening schools —for shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping; misguided people who overlook "acres of diamonds" in their own backyard while they go in search of riches in the overcrowded

and underpaid field of clerical pursuits.

Preparatory training, on a cooperative basis, for entrance into the field of retailing should also receive careful attention. Such pre-employment training is highly effective. Under the cooperative plan trainees are rotated in a great variety of store jobs during the training period and thus get, in a reasonably short time, a wider experience than their full-time associates often get in a much longer period because they are permanently occupied with the single jobs for which they were hired.

As has already been intimated, no small proportion of the 100,000 young people who find their way into store work each year pursue clerical courses in high school and develop a mind-set toward office work which contributes much to occupational maladjustments that inevitably follow placement in store jobs and ultimately become problems too difficult for extension courses to solve.

In advocating an attack on the field of distributive occupations through the retail division I am not suggesting that the wholesale, jobbing, commission, brokerage, and service divisions be wholly overlooked. Wherever a demand for training in these fields occurs in juxtaposition with conditions which make such training possible, every effort should be made to meet it. But the program should be developed first in that field where much spadework has already been done, where teacher-training facilities are already available, where teachers are most likely to be easily found, where the need for training is admittedly state-wide, and in which groups of business men are well informed as to the possibilities of training and more or less eager to assist in setting up training programs.

[*Frederick G. Nichols is a member of the faculty of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University. Reported from the* Journal of Business Education, *XIII (October, 1937), 8-10, 20; and (November, 1937), 8-10.*]

FOR the past three years, Rye High School in Rye, N. Y., has held an Occupational Conference during the Spring term. The purposes of the conference are: (1) to focus each student's attention on what is to follow high school; (2) to supplement the occupational material offered in the curriculum; and (3) to afford an opportunity for students to gain direct contact with outstanding people in the field of their chosen vocations.—*School Executive.*

A FORECAST OF TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION

KARL T. COMPTON

In the Scientific Monthly

MY logic may be faulty or unforeseen conditions may arise to change the picture, but, as I see it, technological education in the future will show the following characteristics:

1. The importance of technological education will continually increase. This appears to be the sure result of three factors: first, increasing competition among individuals and organizations as the opportunity for free expansion into the unoccupied frontiers of the West disappears; second, the necessity for using and husbanding our natural resources more wisely; and, third, the increasing applications of science which are so important a feature of our so-called rising standard of living.

2. There will be increasing differentiation between technological and technical training, i.e., between the engineering and the trade school. The field is becoming too complex to be included in one and the same curriculum.

3. Undergraduate curriculums will increasingly avoid specialization in favor of broad, basic training.

4. As a corollary, the increasing need for technological specialists will be met by the graduate curriculums, and we may expect a continuation of the growing emphasis on graduate study.

5. We will see increasing differentiation in scope and adaptation to environment in our schools. Most of them were founded in horse-and-buggy days. But in an era of fast transportation, why should an ambitious young man seek specialized training at Podunk College when a few hours of travel will give him the superior education of a great institution?

We will, therefore, see many smaller or less favorably situated institutions drop their attempts to encompass the whole educational field and concentrate their resources on undergraduate or junior college training, perhaps retaining some special field of local significance. The higher ranges of education will be concentrated in the most favorably situated institutions. Even among these, the selective process will operate, and we will see a few of them emerge as superprofessional schools, with the graduate aspect strongly emphasized.

6. Research will become increasingly important in the leading technological schools, for two reasons: First, investigation and report of some problem conducted intensively and relatively independently by a student, aided by all the resources of library, laboratory, and consultation which he can marshal, supplies a test and training for an important element of his career, which are not afforded by ordinary classroom or

laboratory methods of instruction. While research is a more expensive type of training than lecture, quiz, and laboratory exercise, and far more difficult to handle properly by the faculty, if so handled it is likely to be fascinating to the student. I believe research to be capable of great development as a feature of education, and those schools which are able to handle it adequately will take a predominating place in the educational world.

Second, educational institutions offer unique opportunities for performing many kinds of research. They have extensive laboratory equipment, large staffs in many related fields, and a great supply of young men available as students or apprentices to work under expert guidance.

While industrial organizations and governmental agencies can profitably conduct research in specific fields, none of these is justified or equipped, as are the educational institutions, to engage in the general advancement of knowledge.

7. Finally comes the question: Will increasing taxation and other methods of forcibly distributing wealth so cripple philanthropy as to sound the death-knell of privately supported educational institutions, leaving all education in the hands of the state?" If it should happen, education would be a major loser. Fully admitting the splendid work of many state-supported universities, and their essential contribution to our national life, it is, nevertheless, the independent institutions which have set the pace and maintained the intellectual integrity and freedom of our entire educational system. Lose them, and the whole structure is freely exposed to the danger of political manipulation and domination.

I do not believe that the basic good sense of the American people will permit this to happen. I do believe that the economic trends are making the path of the private institutions more difficult and that some of them will succumb. The trend, I believe, will be for state institutions to assume more of the burden of ordinary education, expanding from the public school field into the junior college field, thus substituting education for unemployment.

These forecasts indicate that the criterion for survival of a private institution will be that it offers a quality of education and public service definitely superior to that obtainable in government-operated institutions.

[*Karl T. Compton is President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Reported from the* Scientific Monthly, *XLV (October, 1937), 357-60.*]

YOUTH MOVEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES

THOMAS F. NEBLETT

In the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science

THE term "youth movement" has been so vaguely used that it seems necessary to define it, for the purposes of this article, as an organized effort on the part of youth directed toward a goal identified with the interests of young people and the general welfare of society; youth in pursuit of a dominant ideal or a new adventure. This definition automatically eliminates from consideration all youth-serving agencies, public or private, such as the CCC, 4-H Clubs, YMCA, etc. Youth movements are expressions of self-determination and revolt against conditions which are thought to prevent the orderly adjustment of youth to adult life. They began to appear in America as conditions such as these increased in frequency.

Chronologically, youth movements in the United States fall into three periods: prewar, postwar, and post-depression. A young person coming of age in the prewar era found his father's frontier closed and new problems of adjustment confronting him. Resentment and skepticism began to color his philosophy. There was little leadership or organization, but there were those who saw in the inertia of laissez faire and an inflexible absolutist attitude threats to necessary change, if progress was to be orderly. They spoke out, called conferences, wrote articles. Youth was urged to rebel. Civilization was becoming bottled up, but the appeal was still to the pioneer spirit.

Youth movements before the war were not strongly felt or widely organized. Efforts of young idealists were mostly within the college group, and their ideas were neither readily accepted by the students nor approved by the faculties. With the coming of the war, almost overnight youth was swept into what appeared as an idealistic crusade to make the world safe for democracy and peace.

But after the war, youth in practically every nation rallied around some idealistic movement to bring order out of the chaos of a war-torn and profit-mad world. Student volunteers were mobilized to participate in the reconstruction of the devastated areas. Student committees raised funds to alleviate suffering. The story of how young people of the victorious nations, too young for war service, went into Germany to set up relief stations is a thrilling one. International clearing-house organizations grew up to serve this need, and some of them have continued to the present, adapting their activities to meet needs of equal social significance as they arose.

The International Student Service, represented in the United States by the National Student Federation, is an example of such a permanent development. In addition to a liberal educational program on international

and interracial problems, one of the chief activities of the ISS now is the removal of student political refugees from such countries as Nazi Germany.

The organizations of youth which grew out of the World War reflected a definite determination on the part of youth to exercise independent judgment on matters of war and peace. During this period student college groups worked vigorously to organize opinion on a national scale for the furtherance of an enduring peace. This is particularly true of the years up to 1925, when the League of Nations and World Court were issues. The National Student Federation was founded at this time to discuss American participation in the World Court. But as the definite need appeared, it gradually developed into a national student organization with student government in the colleges as a basis. It now has a well-rounded program, consisting of an annual congress, a monthly magazine, a weekly news service to student newspapers, a survey and information bureau, arrangement for the Oxford-Cambridge debate team tour of American colleges and the American debate team tour of Europe, a travel bureau for American students, and American representation in several international student groups.

The spirit of youth in revolt, born of prewar unrest and nurtured in postwar disillusionment, attained a vigorous development in the economic chaos of the depression. The first expression of liberal and radical youth thinking came through the organization of the student section of the League for Industrial Democracy. After the more radical element, under Communist leadership, withdrew and formed the National Student League, the two groups continued to cooperate on certain specific issues, such as war, opposition to the ROTC, Negro discrimination, vigilantism, and violations of academic freedom. Last year these two left-wing groups again reunited in a new organization: the American Student Union. This amalgamation has resulted in the most active radical student movement. It leads the student fight against reaction and the status quo, and with the American Youth Congress, has been the staunch advocate of youth interest in labor and the labor movement.

The American Youth Congress, born in 1934, has developed into a permanent federation of youth organizations. The religious groups, trade unions, and student societies represented in the Youth Congress indirectly reach well over a million young people. The activities of the Youth Congress are the "maintenance and extension of civil rights, racial and religious liberties, opposition to militarism and war, and the betterment of economic conditions through support of the trade union movement and social legislation."

The program of the National Student Federation reflects the increase of student interest in public

affairs since the depression. It has discussed the problem of unemployment among young people and negotiated with Washington officials for the establishment of a more comprehensive youth program.

Religious activities would not ordinarily be classed as youth movements. However, following the depression, many religious youth groups developed programs which fall within the definition of this article. Certain divisions of the YMCA and YWCA have cooperated with various united youth activities such as those directed against war, racial discrimination, loyalty oaths, and compulsory military training. The Methodist youth organization authorized a special national committee for social action. In 1934 the Christian Youth Council was organized, and now represents 41 different denominations. It leads the United Christian Youth Movement, concerned with the issues of war, class hatred, prejudice, unemployment, and lack of opportunity for youth, and has developed a program of summer conferences, publications, and peace demonstrations that reached indirectly nearly 10,000,000 youths.

Youth movements are by no means confined to national or international organizations. Community movements are common. In Toledo, Ohio, a group of young people were entirely responsible for the movement to change from a corrupt municipal government to the progressive city-manager plan now in operation. In Kansas City, Missouri, a youth movement organized to clean up municipal politics nearly broke the Pendergast machine. In the state of Washington the youth-led Order of Cincinnatus grew to power as a liberal political influence. A delegation of students in New York state went to the state capital and succeeded in defeating the student loyalty oath bill. In many instances local college groups have fought for student or professors' rights.

The young idealists who are participating in the various youth movements are, however, decidedly in the minority. For the majority of American youth, whether in colleges, on the farms, in factories, or among the unemployed, there is no dominant ideal around which their enthusiasm may center. This lack of enthusiastic concern about issues that count is a sad commentary on our manners and traditions, particularly since we are faced with the gigantic task of working a way out for democracy in the midst of national and international unrest.

Thomas F. Neblett is a member of the research staff of the Advisory Committee on Education and is a youth member of the Advisory Board of the NYA. *Reported from the* Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, *CXCIV (November, 1937), 141-51.*

THE FLEXIBLE PROGRESS GROUP SYSTEM

LEONARD B. WHEAT

In the Elementary School Journal

MORE and more educators are rebelling against the type of schooling which tries to fit the child to the school pattern rather than fit the school to the child. In a few places pioneering spirits have gone beyond the talking stage and attempted to work out ways of training pupils which would give real recognition to the facts of individual differences. For the most part high costs or other limitations have prevented the newer plans from being widely adopted. But the *flexible progress group system* instituted in Western Springs, Illinois, in 1934 is relatively simple and may be slightly less costly than the old way of handling school children. It functions successfully in Western Springs, a suburb of Chicago, and gives indications that it may be an advancement applicable to schools generally.

The flexible progress group system involves somewhat new methods of pupil classification, promotion, and reports of progress. The outstanding feature is that it abolishes for all children the repeating and skipping of grades and yet allows each child at all times to work at the grade level which fits his educational foundation and mental maturity.

The system was first applied to the primary grades because there reading dominates the curriculum and the strictly educational adjustment can be based on that one subject. At these lower levels only arithmetic is a subject sufficiently distinct from reading to offer much chance for pupils to show achievement scores different from the scores in reading. Classification and promotion based largely on reading achievement, therefore, are quite practical in the first three grades.

When all children of the primary school are grouped according to reading age and mental maturity it is a simple matter to divide them so that each teacher has about 35 pupils, each class being at a different level of learning. There are eight classes in the three-grade spread of the primary school. For teaching purposes, each teacher divides her pupils into three or more groups, each at a different level of progress. The same distance separates the lowest group in one classroom from the top group in the next lower classroom as separates any two groups within a class. In effect, then, there are 8 times 3 groups, or 24 grade levels in the Western Springs primary school instead of the traditional three grades with two or three classes at each grade level.

Such an organization results in much greater homogeneity for each teaching group. This tends to make for more teachable groups, an improved learning situation for each child, and less widespread prepara-

tion by the teacher to meet the varying needs of her children.

Changes in the personnel of the groups are made, not once or twice a year, but whenever the need arises. Children who are occasionally absent, or who are less apt learners, or who otherwise need special attention, are first given help in a period reserved for them at the end of each school day. If a child, even with extra help, lags increasingly behind his group until he is so far in arrears that the next oncoming group is at his level of learning, he is transferred (not demoted) to this next lower group. In like manner a child who has been absent for a month or more with illness may be transferred on his return into the oncoming group which is then at his stage of learning. He thus takes up where he left off and does not have to tax himself with make-up work.

The adjustment of the rapidly-learning child is almost as easily made. It merely means that a few pupils (seldom more than two or three) in each classroom are on individual programs for a time. With such children effort is made to enrich the curriculum as much as possible before they are permitted to go to higher levels, particularly if they are not over age chronologically. Wide reading and extra project work are given to those who tend to forge ahead. A pupil who definitely evidences need for transfer into a more advanced group is put on an individual program. When he has caught up to the level of the next group he is transferred into it, drops his individual program, and takes up his class work as a regular member of the more advanced group. The period during which any child is on an individual program may be only a few days or may occupy a few weeks.

Transfers from one group to another in either direction may be made any week-end during the year. They are made not only from group to group within a class, but from an extreme group in one classroom to the group at adjacent level in the classroom above or below, as the case may be. Transfers involving room and teacher changes call for an extra bit of caution lest an improved subject-learning adustment be made at the cost of social maladjustment. The complete educational situation must be considered in each transfer.

No child or group is expected to cover any prescribed amount of work in a year or any other given time. No attempt is made to force the children's development to fit the theoretically average schedule of a grade a year. A group of advanced first-year pupils might be ready for, and begin the work of Grade II, as tradition defines grades, in March or April of their first year. An average group would start the work the following September. A third group, slower in learning, might not take up the second-grade course of study until late autumn or early winter of their second year.

Each group progresses as far as

possible with the course of study during the year, but reasonable mastery of subject matter and skill is expected every step of the way. Each September all pupils take up their schooling where it was left off the preceding June. The rate of progress varies for different children, but all are going ahead at all times. Some may require four years to go through the primary school. If so, they will advance more slowly, with no failing or repeating of a grade. Others may complete the curriculum in two years, and will do so without omitting or skipping any part of it. The majority of the pupils, of course, will cover the ground in three years.

At Western Springs much study has been given to the matter of extending the flexible progress group system to the intermediate grades. Several modifications which might care for the multiple subject difficulties met in Grades IV-VI have been considered. They are as yet unproved. It may be, indeed, that the new system will prove to be not adaptable above the primary school. But at that level the flexible progress group system works in Western Springs, and its success has persuaded some neighboring communities to adopt the plan. However, the system should be thoroughly tested with a control group experiment in a larger and more average school system before it is regarded as an established improvement for schools in general.

A questionnaire in June, 1936, showed that 93 percent of the parents preferred the new plan over the traditional organization. The teachers who have taught under the flexible program during the last two years have, without exception, indorsed it as a definite improvement over the old lock-step method. They believe that better accomplishment, happier pupils and easier handling of class work accrue with the system.

The new system should not increase expenditures. Quite the opposite, costs per pupil may often be reduced. The greater homogeneity of classes makes it possible for a teacher to handle classes as large as, or larger than, those employed under the traditional system.

[*Leonard B. Wheat is Superintendent of Schools at Western Springs, Illinois. Reported from the* Elementary School Journal, *XXXVIII (November, 1937), 175-83.*]

FROM 1930 to 1932 the cost per pupil for current expense in city school systems decreased 2.9 percent and from 1932 to 1934 decreased 14.7 percent. In some cities the decrease amounted to 30 percent or more.

DEALING WITH CONTROVERSIAL SUBJECTS

In the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association

OF the 1,764 social studies teachers queried in this investigation, 63 percent thought that controversial subjects did *not* have to be avoided entirely. Fifty-seven percent of the elementary teachers, 62 per cent of the junior high teachers, and 70 percent of the high school teachers reported no controversial issues which needed to be avoided. Only 1.3 percent reported that local rules prohibited consideration of all controversial subjects.

Five questions were included in the questionnaire sent to these teachers: What controversial subjects must be avoided entirely? What are the chief reasons why these topics must be excluded from the classroom? What topics must be treated with especial tact? Specifically, how does one treat a controversial issue with tact? Do school systems have rules prohibiting all discussion of controversial questions?

The first 10 controversial subjects in the order of frequency of mention by the teachers were: religion, politics-general, sex questions, social legislation and reform, local politics, communism, racial problems, policies and practices of national government, criticism of prominent people, and labor problems. About 20 other topics were also mentioned. Religious issues were avoided entirely by 26.8 percent of the teachers and treated tactfully by 31.6 percent. Political questions were avoided by 13.5 percent and treated tactfully by 23.8 percent. The other issues, while most frequently mentioned, were reported only by a very small percent of the teachers. In general, the issues most frequently reported as needing to be *avoided* were also reported to be in need of *special treatment.*

Apparently teachers do not consider the teaching of controversial issues on the elementary level as difficult a problem as on the secondary level because of the simplicity of the curriculum and the immaturity of the pupils. The economic background of the community apparently affects controversial topics; teachers in "well-off" communities did not mention the difficulty of religious issues as often, proportionately, as did teachers in poorer communities. Teachers who reported "reactionary" parents more often avoided political issues than those reporting their communities to be conservative, liberal or radical. These differences clearly indicate that social studies instruction does not take place in a vacuum. Teachers must be familiar with the opinions and prejudices of their communities. While certain issues are difficult to handle, wise classroom procedure may win public approval of instruction on even the most controversial topics.

The reason most frequently cited by high school teachers for avoiding controversial subjects was "fear of

outside pressure groups." Immaturity of pupils was the reason given most frequently by elementary teachers.

How do social studies teachers of recognized ability deal tactfully with controversial topics? Space was provided in the questionnaire for brief statements. From the reading of several hundred of these it appeared that certain common practices existed. First, the prevailing method appeared to be discussion designed primarily to bring out facts and points of view rather than to reach final conclusions. Second, that teachers were interested in developing certain pupil-attitudes: (1) self-examination for the purpose of recognizing prejudices as prejudices; (2) objective and impersonal view of facts; and (3) appreciation of the right of others to different opinions.

Junior high teachers placed emphasis on 11 specific practices in teaching political questions. In order of frequency of mention they are: both sides treated impartially; discussion unrestricted; polls and straw votes on election day; tolerance of others' views emphasized; teachers do not give views; conclusions avoided in class; miniature campaign before election day; indoctrination avoided; discussion kept neutral; discussion restricted; conclusion reached in the classroom.

High school teachers revealed 14 specific practices in teaching comparative government. In order of frequency of mention they are: comparisons with United States included; all sides given impartially; indoctrination for democracy; pupils draw own conclusions outside of class; weaknesses of democracy discussed; discussion restricted; scientific attitude stressed; weakness of democracy not discussed; tolerance emphasized; teacher's personal opinions not expressed; discussion not restricted; conclusions reached in class; pupils urged to suspend judgment; teacher's opinion expressed, but minimized.

Controversial topics must be considered in social studies instruction, for the social studies deal with changing questions and debatable issues. Further, many laymen recognize this. In a nationwide survey made by the American Institute of Public Opinion, 62 percent of those canvassed were in favor of discussing all "isms" in the schools. Both teachers and laymen are opposed to the presentation of debatable questions as though they were not debatable. The intelligent and practical approach, as indicated by this study, is through the forum procedure.

[*Reported from "Improving Social Studies Instruction,"* Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, *XV (November, 1937), 218-26.*]

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ALASKA

KATHERINE M. COOK

In a Bulletin of the U. S. Office of Education

ALASKA has two distinct populations, the native and the white. In 1930 the two totaled approximately 60,000 and were almost equally divided numerically. Eskimos and Aleuts make up about 19,000 of the native population. Five different Indian groups constitute the remaining 11,000. The natives are widely scattered throughout the territory, the majority living in villages of from 40 to 500 people. The villages are somewhat isolated and have little communication with each other. Except in Southeastern Alaska the village rather than the tribe is the unit so far as native activities are concerned.

The white population is substantial and progressive, prevailingly of the pioneer type. It is largely concentrated in the towns, of which there are seven having populations of one thousand or more. Socially and economically the white population is made up and lives much as people in like situations live in the states somewhat similar to Alaska in climate and industry. Among the native population, however, social, economic, and racial conditions, and consequently educational problems, differ materially from those normal to the United States. These more or less specialized problems have led to the establishment of two free public school systems—one supported by the federal government for the native population and one supported chiefly by the territory and local school districts for the white population. Natives attend both types of schools. In general the native day schools are confined to the elementary grades and native children avail themselves of the facilities of the territorial secondary schools. In addition, in a number of school districts, by special arrangement or otherwise, they attend regular territorial schools, both elementary and secondary.

The territorial school system organized for the education of children of white and mixed blood resembles the state school systems of the United States in organization, objectives, and school practices. Territorial schools are supported chiefly by appropriations from the territorial treasury, supplemented by local taxation and a portion of the federal taxes collected in the territory. The teaching staff compares favorably in professional qualifications, salaries, and the like to those in small rural schools in the Northwest. Since 1933, completion of standard three-year teacher-preparation courses has been a prerequisite for an Alaskan elementary teaching certificate, while high school teachers must conform to the requirements of the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

Enrolments for 1933-34 were:

rural schools, 1,744; incorporated cities, 3,775. There are 16 high schools, of which 15 offer 4-year courses. Eight are accredited by the Northwest Association. High school enrolment in 1933-34 was 1,039. The term throughout the territory is nine months.

The University of Alaska, formerly the Alaska Agricultural College and School of Mines, heads the public school system. It is the only public institution of higher learning in Alaska. The enrolment in 1937 was 204. Courses in education are now offered, and agricultural experiment stations are maintained in five centers in connection with the college.

The development of the federal school system in Alaska began in 1884, when Congress charged the Secretary of the Interior with responsibility for educating Alaskan children, regardless of race. From 1867, the year of its purchase, until 1884, while Alaska was without any form of government, it was also without schools other than those established by the different missions. For a decade after 1884, while it was slowly building up its own organization, the Bureau of Education subsidized many of these mission schools. In 1894 the contract plan of subsidizing schools was discontinued and the Bureau of Education assumed complete control of public education in Alaska.

The development of the present system dates from 1905, when Congress made sweeping changes in the government of Alaska. The Bureau of Education was relieved of its responsibilities for the education of white children and those of "mixed blood leading a civilized life," this action marking the beginning of what is now the territorial school system, supported and supervised by territorial officials.

The passage of the act of 1905, whereby the Bureau of Education assumed responsibility for the education and general welfare of the natives only, was followed by a more favorable period for education in Alaska. Appropriations for schools, which had been erratic in amount, were made more nearly adequate to the needs of the schools. The period was marked by expansion in number of schools and territory covered and by modernization of organization. Of special importance, however, was the growth of the school system professionally. The mere physical difficulties of getting schools built and equipped, of securing and transporting teachers to put in charge of them, in the face of the handicaps inherent in the severe climate, the isolation, and the primitive living conditions which characterized Alaska in the early years of its development, had taxed the ability of the officials. From 1907 on these difficulties were less absorbing, and the efforts of the Bureau officials could now be centered on introducing into the Alaskan schools modern ideals and practices. During these years supervision on a professional basis

developed. The territory was divided, first into three, later into six districts, each in charge of a superintendent chosen because of educational qualifications and experience. The superintendent was and still is both administrative and supervisory officer in his district. He visits the schools as often as conditions permit and is responsible to the central office for the efficiency of work under his direction. Alaskan school headquarters, first located in Washington, D.C., were transferred to Seattle, and later, in 1929, to Juneau. In 1931, responsibility for the education and medical service for Alaskan natives was transferred from the Office (formerly the Bureau) of Education, to the office of Indian affairs, both located in the Department of the Interior. The transfer involved no fundamental changes in policy.

From the beginning, the responsibility of the Bureau of Education to the natives of Alaska was broadly interpreted. The duties of superintendents and teachers extended far beyond the schoolroom, and included whatever affected the lives of the natives socially and economically. Two of the most urgent needs recognized by officials of the Bureau were those of supplying medical service to all the natives of the territory, and of improving the impoverished condition of many of the natives, especially on the west coast. In 1890 Dr. Jackson, the Bureau's agent, found many of the Alaskan Eskimos eking out a bare existence, their formerly abundant food supply having been depleted by the coming of the white man. Across Bering Strait in Siberia, but a few miles away, where climatic and other conditions were identical to those in Alaska, thousands of natives were supporting themselves with domestic reindeer. Dr. Jackson proposed introducing reindeer from Siberia into Alaska and establishing reindeer raising as an industry in connection with the schools.

In 1894 a Congressional appropriation of $6,000 was secured and the first reindeer were imported. Within a decade the industry was successfully and permanently established. It was maintained under the supervision of the school system until 1929, when it was transferred into the hands of the governor of the territory. By that date the herds had increased to 600,000, and 13,000 natives were largely supported by the reindeer industry.

When the Bureau of Education began its work, practically no medical service was available for the natives of Alaska. The need was recognized at once, and was so urgent that for many years a considerable portion of the Bureau's allotment for education was diverted for emergency medical relief. In 1915 a special appropriation was finally obtained from Congress for medical services. This was substantially increased in succeeding years, which made it possible for the Bureau to establish a permanent health service. In 1930 the Alaskan

service maintained 7 hospitals staffed with physicians and nurses; 3 small hospitals in charge of nurses; and 16 village nurses. A number of part-time physicians were employed, and a medical boat carrying a physician, dentist, and two nurses administered both medical and dental services to the natives along the Yukon and Tanana Rivers during the summer.

The economic condition of the natives becomes more rather than less acute as contacts with civilization increase and the natural food supply decreases. Employment in the vocations of the white population is difficult for natives to secure. The importance of an educational program adapted to their particular needs becomes more and more apparent. The large aims of the schools are, therefore, to give natives a working knowledge of English, to improve their economic efficiency, and to promote better standards of living.

The schools are centers of economic, social, and recreational life in the native communities. Each school is a medical center. If no physician or nurse is in residence, the teacher dispenses medical aid and acts as health and sanitation advisor. To an extent scarcely realized among persons living under highly civilized conditions the schools aim to fill all kinds of important needs in native life. They are open to adults as well as children throughout the day and evening, and the teacher is available to help in practical everyday problems. They are adapted to local conditions. Where gardening is feasible, it is emphasized. In communities visited by tourists, the schools teach native arts and crafts. Along the rivers where motorboats are necessary, the school shops teach both adults and youths to build boats, repair gas engines, and the like.

In 1935, 99 day or village schools, 2 residential schools, and 1 school for the blind enrolled 4,299 children and employed 186 teachers. Twenty-four of the teachers were natives, continuing the long-established policy of recruiting the staff from among the natives whenever possible. Support for the Service is, as in the past, through congressional appropriations. In 1935 these were: education, $572,600; medical service, $271,330.

[*Katherine M. Cook is Chief, Division of Special Problems, Office of Education. Reported from* Public Education in Alaska, *Bulletin 1936, No. 12, United States Office of Education.*]

SENECA Vocational High School, Buffalo, N. Y., operates its own radio station, WSVS, which is on the air daily for two and a half hours.

JEWISH EXPERIMENTS IN EDUCATION

LOUIS KATIN

In the Scottish Educational Journal

WITH Jewish educationists from Britain, America, Germany, and other advanced states pooling their ideas in Palestine, many innovations have been made in the educational sphere.

Palestine's most important contribution and one which has proved conspicuously successful, is the Children's Village. America has, of course, long known the Children's Village. But in that country it has not reached anything like the consummation and equipment of the Palestine enterprise.

Life had become impossible for thousands of Jewish children abroad, owing to persecution and poverty. Therefore a plan was effected whereby they might be sent to Palestine while their parents remained behind. But some comprehensive form of home life had to be found to compensate for their enforced orphanage, and thus a bold educational experiment came into being.

The typical Children's Village comprises tents for summer sleeping, small wooden huts, stronger buildings in stone or concrete, the whole surrounded by flower gardens and palm and cypress avenues.

Self-discipline is the central idea of the community. Freedom is the keynote, but social law prevents it from deteriorating into anarchy. From the age of 12 the boys and girls are expected to govern themselves. They appoint leaders, and delinquencies are judged and punished by the group. These leaders also cooperate with the tutors and directors in planning both the curriculum and the social life.

For the group from 3 to 8 years, kindergartens are provided on Montessori lines, the family groups numbering about 10. In the next age-group, 8-14, families increase to 25, each with its tutors and matrons. Here the motif of self-discipline comes into play, and the group has a school committee of children and tutors to decide communal matters together. Then comes the third group of 15-18, the families comprising as many as 35. They are completely self-governing at this age, the tutors and matrons only acting as advisers.

In the center of the village, grouped around a spacious courtyard, are the schoolhouses and dormitories, built of stone. Attached to the former are open terraces where the children go out to study if they tire of the classroom.

After the Montessori stage is passed, the Dalton Plan comes into operation. Within its limits, children choose their own studies, or rather their own way of studying a particular subject.

Throughout all Zionist education, especial stress is laid on agricultural training and on instilling love of the land in the pupil's mind. In accord-

ance, however, with the principle of individual liberty, there is ample opportunity for learning vocations other than farming. Skilled tuition is given in the trades, but, if academic or professional distinction is required, then the attainment of an ordinary secondary school standard will allow the pupil to take specific courses at the Hebrew University at Jerusalem without further credentials.

One of the biggest difficulties of the Jewish educationists in Palestine is the heterogeneousness of the pupils. They come from almost every country in the East and West. Some are literate and others are illiterate, some are Occidental and others Oriental in culture and temperament, some are brought up as orthodox Jews and others as free-thinkers, some are abjectly poor and others luxuriously rich. In conclusion, all speak different languages and dialects. In this respect the similarity between expanding Palestine today and the America of yesterday is striking.

As one step towards unification, Hebrew has been established as the basic language in all Zionist schools, with English compulsory in the elementary fifth grade, and English and Arabic compulsory in all secondary classes. Greek and Latin are not taught, but French and Italian are taught optionally.

Two other distinctive features of Zionist tuition are the universality of nursery schools and the insistence on health instruction. Boys and girls are early taught the nutritive values of foods and are taken on frequent shopping expeditions to buy the food themselves. Health scouts are selected and these have the duty of spreading the elementary rules of hygiene among their less-enlightened elders. Lessons by nurses, health films, and exhibitions are all part of the health tuition system.

In Zionist schools generally, far less faith is placed in examinations than here, and more faith is placed in the teacher's discretion. Also corporal punishment is not inflicted—rather lines, or a mild form of humiliation. Most Zionist schools are coeducational.

Since 1919 the Zionist Executive's educational system in Palestine has expanded from 94 schools with an aggregate attendance of 10,000 to 350 schools with an attendance of 40,000. In addition, there are many private schools and religious schools with some thousands of pupils. As may be imagined, some of the Executive's most interesting ventures are heavily handicapped by lack of money.

[*Reported from the* Scottish Educational Journal, *XX (October 22, 1937), 1306-7.*]

SITTING ONE'S WAY THROUGH COLLEGE

KENNETH IRVING BROWN

In the Journal of Higher Education

TO most college "students" who sit long enough and patiently and docilely give back a modicum of the wisdom that has flowed past their ears, there will come in time the reward of their long-sitting, sheepskins to cover their intellectual nakedness. Perhaps with reason, our colleges are known as "seats of learning." President Hutchins of Chicago has suggested that, until the unemployment slack is taken up, idleness, prison, or the navy are the only alternatives to college. Given the choices suggested, the case for educational sitting can be made argumentatively respectable, but it falls considerably short of the purposes for which our colleges were founded or the opportunities embodied in them.

The fact that the young man of nonintellectual interests can "sit" his way through college is due to our educational organization, wherein we departmentalize and subdepartmentalize the areas of human knowledge and then check off claims within each acre according to "courses." This unholy emphasis on academic bookkeeping is largely responsible for raising to a virtue (at least to the student mind) the inactivity of long-sitting. Perhaps with logic, students hold the word "activities" for pursuits other than classroom studies. They "take" courses, though seldom far; they "pass" courses, frequently in the dictionary meaning of "leave behind."

To offset this evil, comprehensive examinations were constructed; but few educators, I am certain, believe that the comprehensive examination is a comprehensive answer to the problem. And as long as the public demands tangible evidences of educational success—credits, diplomas, certificates—counting them of greater importance than the intellectual qualities they are expected to represent, so long will academic bookkeeping remain with us. We can seek, however, to hold it secondary to the process of gaining and understanding and interpreting knowledge.

In all areas of life we pay homage to achievement—professional, literary, financial, athletic. Indeed, it is assumed that the colleges educate for achievement. Is the idea too forthright to be educationally sound, that a college should list the accomplishments held essential for graduation and expect the student to fulfill them? By some such means might it be possible to restore the honorableness of the college diploma as a symbol of achievement? To the immediate objection that this is the current practice at all reputable institutions, I refer you to the catalogues of these same institutions. The usual requirements for graduation, "a minimum of 120 hours with additional credit for physical education," may repre-

sent little more than hours of painful but patient sitting. Their blood relationship to achievement is so far removed as to make the claimed relationship laughable.

If, granting the improbable, actual achievement were to be made the basis of graduation, I should like to see the colleges of America set forth the following expectations:

First, a reasonable facility in the use of one's mother tongue. If the English written and spoken by too many of our students is freshman English, then perhaps we should inaugurate courses in adult English.

Second, I should expect decent ability to speak in public. The facility can be acquired—there is more sweat than magic in the procedure—and there is a large call for such facility in the world of our day, as witness the stammering, stuttering, and tiring dullness one frequently encounters at masculine luncheon clubs and feminine afternoon institutes.

The third expectation is a familiarity with the major social, economic, literary, and philosophical problems of one's day, with some understanding of their historical antecedents. There is an element of absurdity in tagging as educated a man whose life and interests are wholly in a past age, no matter how glorious and historically significant that age may have been. Let the colleges make their students aware of the present, which has emerged from the parent past, and expectant of a worthy future.

Our next hope is for a broad acquaintance with the findings of science in its larger fields and some firsthand acquaintance with the scientific method.

A fifth expectation is mastery of a chosen field of knowledge. The day of comprehensive learning has passed. Today one must accept superficiality in education and it is not to be despised. But somewhere in the areas of learning, college should aid the student to substitute mastery for superficiality. Perhaps vocational interests should direct the choice of a specialty; it need not command public approval or excite dramatic interest, but in some corner of the field of human learning there should be a plot that is one's own by right of conquest.

An enthusiasm for books, a knowledge of where they are to be found, experience in using them, and assistance in enjoying them is the sixth expectation.

The next is a thoughtful determination of one's vocation, after a sound and impersonal appraisal of one's capacities. It is a fortunate boy or girl who knows from childhood that he is predestined to a particular vocation. Many are unable to make this decision until college years. Surely college should be instrumental in helping the student to know himself.

Eighth, I should expect the beginning of a philosophy of life which shall tend to afford a single-directional vitality to living. The college

experience ought to give the teachable student a sense of direction in life. Easy words to write, these, but over this demand many a leader sweats drops of honest blood. It involves an understanding of the self —psychology; an acquaintance with the best thought of the world—philosophy; an awareness of those relationships in the universe which "lie beyond the clear knowledge of the present point of time"—religion. An engraved diploma is meager compensation for the lack of some initial adjustment of the self to the surrounding present, the historic past, and the mystic future.

As my ninth expectation I should name an acquaintance with certain daily routines, the importance of which lies in their commonness. Is their any sensible reason why colleges should scorn the practical needs of students? I refer to such needs as elementary banking practices; accepted forms of social correspondence; an understanding of the consumer's rights; practices of budgeting; the art of conversation; a layman's introduction to legal procedures.

Tenth, we should expect an introduction to certain areas of activity and appreciation which may serve as happy occupations for the leisure periods of life. As part of this introduction there should be the cultivation of minimum skill in one or more of such fields as music, art, literature, photography, handicraft, sports, etc.

Finally, we should expect a willingness to accept one's portion of responsibility for life. Literacy is no guarantee of character. Around the professions of medicine, teaching, the ministry, and social service, there still clings the aura of humanitarian zeal. Around the world of business there is no such aura. Education is sought by thousands with no other thought than personal aggrandizement. I would not wish to deprive such students of their opportunity to learn. I should wish that with learning there might come a vision of need so large and demanding that of necessity there would be a place for him in its fulfillment.

[*Kenneth Irving Brown is President of Hiram College. Reported from the* Journal of Higher Education, *VIII (December, 1937), 457-63.*]

THE Berkeley, California, board of education has authorized the construction of a new-type portable classroom unit. Unlike the usual structure, the building will be permanent but designed to be readily moved to new locations. The unit will have a steel frame with walls of fire-resistant material and full attention will be given to details of heating, lighting, and conveniences. The cost is estimated at $4,000.

THE SCHOOL CAR

ANGUS G. MCKAY

In the Canadian School Journal

SOME ten years ago, the Department of Education was faced with the problem of providing a means of education for the children of the settlers in northern Ontario. The answer was found in the "School on Wheels." Established in 1926, the first School Car was so successful that six are now in operation.

Each car has a definite route of about 175 miles, which it covers in at least six weeks. It stays at each stop for from four days to a week, depending on the number of pupils. The first two days are usually spent in discussing the work previously assigned, the rest in teaching the more difficult parts of the new work to be left as homework. When the car leaves, each pupil is given a minute outline of the work to be done until it returns, together with a timetable. If difficulties arise while the car is away, the pupil writes to the teacher. Materials and textbooks are supplied free, and the car includes a small library.

The subjects stressed are English, reading, spelling, composition, and arithmetic, while history and geography are taught chiefly by the problem method. The teaching is conventional, except that an unusual amount of drill is required in the language subjects owing to the fact that 90 per cent of the children are non-English speaking.

This system of education should be called the Pupil-Parent-Teacher School. After careful organization, success depends chiefly on the pupils and their parents. The pupils, who had lived practically in a vacuity before the advent of these unique schools, now find the way opened to a world of new and exciting things. They react as though the car has touched the mainspring of something which had formerly been dormant. Their interest is best indicated by the fact that the School Cars are among the few Ontario schools having 100 per cent attendance. Some pupils, not satisfied with one week of teaching, go to one or two other stops to gain more. Every pupil always has his work done.

As for the parents, most of them foreign-born and handicapped by lack of education — they are eager that their children shall not suffer from this lack and cannot do enough to show their appreciation. For them the car offers night classes, and as many as 15 at a stop walk miles at 50 below zero to learn to read, write, and compute.

[*Reported from the* Canadian School Journal, *XV (September, 1937), 320-21, 345.*]

CHILD WELFARE AND THE CINEMA

EDGAR DALE

In the English Journal

IF we define education as the development of the characters and personalities of children, the cinema is an integral part of the educational process. Its specific part is difficult to analyze out of the entire complex of experience. There is danger that we may claim too much effect for the cinema. But there is a greater danger at the present time that we may claim too little. Here I am not expressing a personal opinion. After three years' research and the expenditure of more than $200,000, the investigation financed by the Payne Fund has found convincing evidence of the tremendous power of the cinema.

First, Dr. George Stoddard of the University of Iowa, testing more than 3,000 children and adults, found that children absorb and remember a strikingly large proportion of the information presented in motion pictures. Eight-year-old children got about 3 of the 5 facts that adults got; 12-year-old children got 3 of the 4 facts adults got; and 16-year-old children got 9 of the 10 facts adults got.

A second important conclusion of Dr. Stoddard's study showed that children of all ages tend to accept as true what they see in the cinema. Further, sometimes correct information which children possessed was displaced by the incorrect historical or geographical information presented in the cinema. A story in this connection: Disraeli is a character in the current play *Victoria Regina*. When he walks on the stage for the first time the audience is visibly disturbed. Why? Because he does not resemble George Arliss.

Dr. Thurstone of the University of Chicago carried out an investigation to discover the effect of the cinema on the attitudes of children. More than 4,000 children were tested on their attitudes before and after they went to the cinema, and retested as long as a year and a half afterward. The study establishes the fact that the attitude of children toward a social value can be measurably changed by one exposure to a film. *Four Sons* made these children more friendly toward the German people. *Welcome Danger* made them more unfriendly toward the Chinese. *All Quiet on the Western Front* shifted the attitude toward war.

Further, the retests, some of which occurred a year and a half later, indicated that these shifts in attitude are relatively permanent. The effect of films does not quickly wear off. It does not go in one eye and out the other.

Films today are produced for adults and are fit for children only by chance. Of the films produced in the United States last year only 8.7 percent was judged as good for children. A percentage of 21.7 was judged as fair or doubtful; almost

70 percent was considered poor. If the producers would make the good films available to what we call nontheatrical exhibition, part of our problem would be solved. Better still would be the printing of these films on 16-mm. size. But the producers have shown no interest in so doing.

At least 1,000 schools in the United States are equipped to show talking motion pictures. As yet this market is small compared to that furnished by the 14,000 theatres. However, I am convinced that the number of projectors will double in the next year and a half. A number of steamship lines are utilizing the 16-mm. film projectors and it is reported that American railroad systems plan to inaugurate these showings in their pullmans. If this movement develops, the producer of films will tend to fall into the same role as the producer of books. The book publisher produces a variety of books for a variety of markets. He sells to anyone. Further, there are expensive editions and later editions at reduced cost. The growth of the nontheatrical market does not settle the specific problem of the production of films specifically for children, but as the nontheatrical market develops I believe that production will also develop specifically for this field.

Another possibility that needs careful exploration is the production of films by government subsidy. Various departments of the federal government have produced films for adults, and if governments can produce films showing farmers how to raise better hogs, it may be inferred that they might soon subsidize films which would insure better child growth. One of the best teaching films I have seen was produced by John Grierson for the General Post Office Film Unit and is called *Weather Forecasting.*

The teaching of motion picture discrimination has been widely introduced in the United States, and has, I believe, great therapeutic value. It is usually introduced informally in the classes in literature. The young people are not told what movies they ought to attend. They learn to evaluate critically the movies they have seen, and to understand that attendance at a trashy movie means not merely a wasted evening but also is a vote of confidence in the production of that kind of picture.

[*Edgar Dale is Associate Professor of Education at Ohio State University. Reported from the* English Journal, *XXVI (November, 1937), 698-705.*]

PEACE AND THE SCHOOLS

SHERMAN GUNDERSON
In the Social Studies

SHOULD a teacher be a propagandist for peace or a prophet of the inevitable war? Should he remain neutral on this as on every other controversial question? Or should the teacher and the school have a larger social conscience to follow than the narrow dictation of certain patriotic organizations? If so, what is this social conscience? What are its principles?

If schools are to quit their attitude of subservience and exercise even a cautious leadership for peace, three broad objectives must be adopted: (1) to reinterpret patriotism as it now exists; (2) to develop an attitude of national humility; and (3) to bring an understanding of the causes and the results of war.

It is necessary to reinterpret patriotism because as it now exists it means loyalty to one's country only by fighting some other country. In psychological association tests, school children given the word "patriotism" invariably write opposite it "war." Yet are we so surprised at this? Patriotism and war are closely associated in textbooks and patriotic programs. Think of the usual Armistice Day and Memorial Day programs. Even Washington and Lincoln birthday programs frequently bring out the same partnership of war and patriotism. And war does mean supreme sacrifice, does demand high courage, does demand forgetfulness of self—all unquestioned ideals. When such ideals are wrapped in the high drama and adventure of war, so common in movies and literature, the result is natural.

To divorce war from patriotism is not enough then; it must be replaced by a moral equivalent for war. Youth demands a fighting patriotism, and the school's responsibility is to give patriotism a new meaning just as appealing, just as forceful, just as idealistic as the old meaning. Let the enemy instead become disease, poverty, waste, crime, ignorance, and greed.

The second responsibility of the school is to develop national humility. By this is meant the opposite of national arrogance and the attitude of national superiority. It does not mean being ashamed because one is an American. It does mean a consciousness of national faults as well as of national virtues. It also means an understanding of the virtues of other countries, as well as their mistakes and inferiorities.

A study of undistorted world history should provide this understanding. That person who is informed about the world as a whole can only be a citizen of the world, and such a citizen always has been and always will be the chief antagonist to wars between nations. A balanced and sane outlook makes national arrogance and that sneering superi-

ority of ignorance an absolute impossibility.

The third objective is concerned with the causes and the results of war. There is a distinction between the real reasons for war and the good or moral reasons. This should be taught. Students should learn that most modern wars have been caused by national rivalry for raw materials, for markets for finished products, and investments of large industrial countries in weaker countries. They should be taught that peace may often involve heavy temporary penalties in the form of low prices for the farmer, low dividends for the stockholder, low wages for the worker. The economic steps preceding our entrance into the World War should be made unmistakably clear to as many students as possible.

The student should study the power of propaganda. The fickleness of public opinion and the ease with which the United States has been duped in the past should be clearly understood. Let students recall how even peace societies, overnight almost, changed from champions of peace to become the baton of a flaming war parade and by tricky reasoning justified war in the name of peace.

Also, the contributing factors of nationalistic pride and rival antagonisms, the system of entangling alliances, the competitive factor in armaments, should be carefully studied.

Oversimplification of the causes of war is dangerous. Oversimplification of the problem can result, finally, only in disappointment and disillusionment. A defeatist attitude toward war develops, such as actually exists today. This itself is another cause of war and should be vigorously attacked by the schools. The very fact that civilization considers war inevitable, makes it so.

Finally, the results of war must be imprinted indelibly. The United States budget is good material for that. One result of war is that over $1,000,000,000 was spent for war preparations in 1936, the highest figure, incidentally, of any country in the world. What would happen if someone should suggest in Congress the expenditure of an additional million for world peace. In the words of Senator Gerald Nye, "He would be laughed off his feet." Eighty percent of the federal budget in 1932 was spent because of past wars or in preparation for future wars.

[*Sherman Gunderson is a member of the faculty of the Two Rivers, Wisconsin, High School. Reported from the* Social Studies, *XXVIII (November, 1937), 309-12.*]

The Education Digest Ratings

Number

THE superabundance of instructional materials makes it difficult for educators to choose those materials best suited to their needs. The EDUCATION DIGEST is seeking to help solve this problem for its readers by providing ratings on a five-point scale for various instructional items. The ratings are a regular feature of the EDUCATION DIGEST and suggestions for items to be rated will be welcomed.

Is there a need?

At present no organization which is free from advertising bias and the inevitab thors aids consumers of educati sumers in other fields have wel scientific evaluation of items.

What will be rated?

Items which have alleged pr or institutions for the training rated. These will include textb and secondary schools, courses and other instructional material

ITEM:

Cole, Robert D., and Tharp, James B. *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teac* 1937. Pp. xxi + 640 .....

Breslich, Ernest R., and Stone, Charles A. *Trigonometry.* Chicago: Laidlaw Brot

Lewis, William D., and Rowland, Albert Lindsay. *Pioneer Trails. Book VII.* Phil

Becker, Carl L. *Modern History.* New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1933 .....

Slavson, S. R. *Creative Group Education.* New York: Association Press, 1937.

Georges, Joel S.; Anderson, Robert F.; and Morton, Robert L. *Mathematics Thro* Silver Burdett Co., 1937 .....

Hanna, Paul R.; Anderson, Genevieve; and Gray, William S. *David's Friends at*

Darling, Millard S., and Greenberg, Benjamin B. *Effective Citizenship.* New York

Yoakam, Gerald A.; Bagley, William C.; and Knowlton, Philip A. *Reading to Le* Macmillan Co., 1935 .....

Powers, Samuel R.; Neuner, Elsie F.; and Bruner, Herbert B. *Man's Control of F* Boston: Ginn and Co., 1935 .....

* The EDUCATION DIGEST, through its Managing Editor, assumes full and sole responsibility for these ratings. The members of the Editorial Advisory Board of the EDUCATION DIGEST are in no way responsible for these ratings and it should be understood that no educational institution or business establishment has any connection with these ratings or with the EDUCATION DIGEST.

tings of Instructional Materials*

Number VI

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How are ratings made?

The ratings are based on competent judgments by experts selected on a nation-wide basis. As many judgments are secured as may be necessary to convince the EDUCATION DIGEST of their validity.

RATING AS TO:	Content	Workmanship	Interest	Teachability	Attractiveness
d Their Teaching. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc.,	A	B	B	C	C
aidlaw Brothers, 1936	A	A	B	B	B
ok VII. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1930	B	A	B	A	B
3	A	A	B	C	C
Press, 1937. Pp. vii + 247	B	D	C	D	C
matics Through Experience, Book I. New York:	C	B	C	B	B
Friends at School. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1936	B	A	B	B	A
New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936	B	C	C	B	C
ading to Learn, Book Three: Exploring New Fields. New York:	B	B	C	C	C
ontrol of His Environment (Junior High School Science).	B	C	C	B	C

A—Excellent B—Good C—Fair D—Poor E—Very poor

MUST THE HIGH SCHOOL SURVIVE?

PHILIP W. L. COX

In the Educational Forum

THAT a question should seriously be raised regarding the possible demise of the general high school at the very moment of its apparently approaching universality and security may shock some readers. To others it may seem absurd. Many will, however, accept it in the spirit in which it is asked; it implies an unprejudiced inquiry into the present needs of society for educational institutions for adolescent youths, the adequacy of present high schools to meet those needs, and so far as inadequacies are found, the possibilities of so transforming the high school that it may function as a constructive social agency of an evolving democratic society.

In the relatively brief history of American education, educational institutions have risen in response to current needs or pressures. The Latin grammar school was founded to teach preparatory Latin and a little Greek to young men of social promise who planned to enter college to prepare for the ministry. New times, however, brought new demands, and at the opening of the nineteenth century, it was dwindling in its relative importance. Its few survivors finally preserved themselves by meeting the demands that had been earlier refused, but the Latin grammar school as an institution had perished.

The first academy was founded in Philadelphia in 1751; by 1830 there were a thousand; by 1850 there were over six thousand of them. Despite the necessary revolutionary innovations, however, its adaptations, like those of the Latin grammar school, came too slowly to meet the demands of the unleashed forces of the new social democracy that accompanied the political and economic aspirations of a vigorous, expressive people. Before a generous and varied curriculum had been widely established, the mercantile and mechanic classes of Boston had exerted such political pressure on the city government that there was established the English Classical High School, free of tuition charges, open to boys of 13 who had attended the public elementary schools. Public high schools increased in numbers and size slowly—in 1870 there were only 165—even though the academy continued for almost a half-century to flourish and expand. The free public high schools soon thereafter gained undisputed legal status and quickly surpassed or engulfed the academies. As a general agency for democracy, the academy has perished.

Meantime the public high school has expanded with unbelievable diversity, flexibility, and catholicity. But the pressures of public demands have been irresistible. School boards and faculties have had to adapt the schools to meet public demands or make way for others who would do

so. Like their predecessors in the Latin grammar schools and academies, public school teachers and "leaders" have generally responded grudgingly to compulsions that could not be escaped.

The analogy of the status and characteristic attitudes of the typical public high school in 1937 to those of the Latin grammar school in 1800 and of the academy of 1850 is too close to be disregarded by anyone who has its welfare at heart.

What institution and what forces challenge the high school? It is not pretended that the lowly rival of the present school can be identified—if it exists. What form the institution may take and how rapidly it may emerge will depend on what social and economic conditions lie ahead. Revolutionary changes in the spirit and purposes and functioning of secondary schools might, indeed, forestall the emergence of rival institutions entirely. Such little understood conditions have surrounded the school since 1919, and such even more difficult and new circumstances are potential just ahead, that a sudden reversal of popular support for the high school would not seem impossible. Labor, for example, is just now bidding aggressively not only for greater political influence, but for more effective participation in the determination of industrial, commercial, agricultural, and other social policies. It is not the temper of the times to accept either authority or tradition as inevitable controls of high school practices. Pressure groups are asserting their interests in the high school curriculum and regimen. And they have their way! In many parts of our country various religious-sectarian and racial or nationalistic groups are demanding and receiving recognition of their points of view. Quite as disturbing as the possible emergence of new controlling influences which might exert positive pressure on our high schools or which might sponsor rival institutions, is the negative position of current public secondary education. Not only has it failed to meet the purposes for which it is maintained, but it has never seriously attempted it.

What does our present leadership promise? There are many evidences that the educational profession is aware that reorientation and reorganization are demanded. Preliminary statements have been appearing recently from two commissions—the Educational Policies Commission of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association, and the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. The former body has published a volume with the promising title, *The Unique Function of Education in a Democracy.* [See the EDUCATION DIGEST (June, 1937), 1-6.—*Editor.*] The latter has issued a discriminating delimitation of the problem of education of adolescent youth by Harl R. Douglass. [See the EDUCATION

DIGEST (September, 1937), 1-3; and (October, 1937), 16-19.—*Editor.*]

The volume entitled *Conclusions and Recommendations* issued by the Social Studies Commission of the American Historical Association in 1934 presented a much more vigorous philosophy for educational reconstruction than any of those referred to above. Except for Merriam's volume, *Civic Education in the United States,* however, no adequate instrumentation for this philosophy has appeared in any of the Commission's later volumes, though at least three others have presented constructive proposals for improved practices in the present institutional settings.

The Challenge to Secondary Education, edited by Samuel Everett and sponsored by the Society for the Study of the Curriculum, has included several examples of the boldest innovations both in philosophies, programs, and actual practices. The contributions of Alexander, Watson, Koopman, and Featherstone indicate the revolutionary character of curriculum revision that must be undertaken if the realization of a changing civilization is to be reflected in the study-programs of high school youths.

The broadest hints of the scope of the new institution are to be found in Hanna's *Youth Serves the Community* [See the EDUCATION DIGEST (February, 1937), 45-47.—*Editor.*] and in the series of pamphlets on youth, published by the federal Office of Education. In these books and in scattered paragraphs and pages of many other frontier educational thinkers, the community is recognized as the curriculum matrix and, hence, that it provides the origin, the setting, and the application of educational experiences.

Bold thinking, planning, and action are required, however, if the high school is to continue to merit and receive public support. Unless an institutional organization can be developed which shall include the high school as a central unit, it should not surprise schoolmen that new educational instruments have been developed, generously financed, and put in the hands of men and women whose training and experience have been gained in military, labor, social service, and recreational areas rather than in schools.

High schools, barely able to accommodate numbers, are utterly inadequate for the needs and potentialities of youth. The typical high school is not in a state of health, but of decay and disillusionment that would be recognized if it were studied by persons free from stereotypes of academic standards, administrative regulations, and "busy work." To the critical student of the secondary school, symptoms of this decay in the academic and general high schools are everywhere in evidence. Most, perhaps all, of these symptoms of decay have counterparts in the world of insecurity and confusion, which the school pre-

sumes to serve. Character and good conduct according to the school stereotype are almost synonymous with conformity and docility. Protest, challenge, argument, boldness, invention, criticism are adjudged bad manners or even defiance. And so the school, in the midst of a world wherein many of the most valuable citizens are characterized by positive, assertive, challenging, innovating characters, promotes negative conducts fit only for a finished and static world.

Let no one lightly assume that the mere desire to serve youth will meet the challenge. There will probably be required a 7-day, 16 hours-a-day school, with curriculum opportunities so flexible that pupils may attend at different hours, at different seasons, on different days. There will be no beginning of a school year and no close, of course, and no vacation. Wherever youth is serving and experiencing, whether in industry, in church, in boys' clubs and settlement houses, in YMCA's and Scout troops, in travel, at the theater or concert, in trade-union organizations or protest groups or civic societies, in camps, nature clubs, experimenters' societies, photographers' mutual admiration groups, orchestral, dramatic, or public question societies, in homes and neighborhoods, as volunteer firemen, policemen, nurses—of such, as well as book history, laboratory chemistry, linguistics, "pure" mathematics, economic "science," will the curriculum be made *if the high school is to persist.*

The school must recruit a majority of its staff from protesting youth, those who care something about the world in which they live and which they are to transmit to those who follow them. This change in the recruitment of teachers may be the major obstacle to the school's survival.

The purposes or functions of the high school, or its successor, are to be found in the needs of American youths of 16 to 24 years of age in the technological-economic and social-civic world that is emerging, and in the interactions of man and his world. In a static society, youth is a period of adjustment and initiation into the mores, privileges, accomplishments, and responsibilities which characterize adult membership. In an expanding economy, youths learn to do more than what is "right." They are called upon to explore and adventure, to discover new paths, new devices, new possibilities for development. They furnish the brawn; they take the risks; they pioneer. In an economy that is in a state of genetic revolution, however, youths have great difficulty in discovering and following a satisfactory way of life. So during the past 8 years of depression we have seen youth seek to escape the insecurities of impoverished homes, unemployment, and thwarted ambitions.

A few, a very few, have sought to understand why depressions occur,

why nations engage in war, why in an age of potential plenty, millions are protected from starvation only by government intervention. These young people may not discover satisfactory answers for themselves, but they suspect that many of their elders either do not care or else are afraid to speak, if not, as is likely, afraid to think, about these matters.

It is not that protesting youth is right in any or all of its challenges. It is that they seek what they conceive to be a better world than that which they believe exists at present. It is that they dare to do what they believe will bring such a world into existence. It is that they are stripping the mores of their blind force. It is that they themselves pay honor to conflicts with established law-enforcement agencies. And, especially, it is that they seek among adult groups and institutions for those who sanction sincerity and ideals, and that they disregard or despise smug sets who approve only what is "respectable" and conforming.

Fascism in Italy, Germany, and elsewhere, socialist construction in the Soviet Union, democratic socialism in Scandinavia, nationalism in Turkey and Japan, all challenge youth to positive action, each for its special program. Democracy in America has its goals not yet achieved, its problems not yet solved. Democracy *needs* the spirit and intellectual freshness that youth, freed from social-educational stereotypes, might furnish.

If the high school must survive and is to survive, it will have to prove that it can render far more vigorous service to youth and to society than is at present the case. It must, however, make these adaptations positively and willingly. It must, indeed, be constantly egging its conservative community to sanction always more realistic practices. It must so plan its curriculum and regimen that youths will normally serve their immediate and more remote communities and will study fearlessly all social questions and be unafraid to propose and defend the solutions of these problems that seem best to them. Competent thinking and practices, not "right" answers, must receive school approval.

Such changes are possible. There is yet time to make them. But to make them there will be needed coordinated vigorous planning and experiment. Some of the proponents of change will lose their jobs; such danger is a concomitant of positive action. But whoever values his job above his standards is already unfit to guide youth or to share in the transmutation of the high school.

[*Philip W. L. Cox is Professor of Secondary Education, School of Education of New York University. Reported from the* Educational Forum, *II, (November, 1937), 25-39.*]

THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION TASK

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER
In the Social Frontier

IN the operation of our educational system, four major problems claim our attention: (1) the control of education; (2) the selection, organization, and handling of the educational staff; (3) the financing of the educational program; and (4) the shaping of conditions within the school favorable to the development of a desirable educational service.

The control of education has become especially important. Powerful individuals and minority groups see in the school an agency which might be used to promote their ideas or special interests, and when educational activities involve a critical analysis of contemporary conditions they sometimes see the school as a threat to their ideas and position. Consequently, one finds individuals and groups operating through the state legislatures, through pressures on boards of education, and through attacks in the press, to force the schools to conform to their ways of thinking and thus cause them to become propagandist agencies for the ideas and social practices which they favor.

It is my belief that school administrators should not limit their activities to resisting the efforts of minorities to determine the nature of the educational service. Instead, they should be aggressive in building an informed public opinion favorable to the development of an appropriate educational service. This viewpoint challenges the policy sometimes suggested that the school should merely give the people what they want at the time. For educators to follow such a policy is to surrender their position of leadership. The persons who do mold public opinion will indirectly dictate what the educational worker will do, for in the long run the agencies which are most potent in shaping public opinion will control the schools indirectly through the public opinion they develop. And professional educators have a definite social responsibility to develop an understanding of the type and amount of education appropriate for a democracy.

The most difficult element in a positive program of school control and educational leadership involves judgment as to the social conditions which are likely to develop and which the educational program might aid in developing. At this point objections are sometimes made by those who believe that educators are getting outside their legitimate field when they give attention to social matters. They assume that one can have educational vision without having social vision, an educational philosophy without a social philosophy. I believe both of these assumptions to be false. That is, I believe that one cannot think intelligently on educational issues without think-

ing intelligently on social issues. In fact, the educational program ought to be socially dynamic in contributing to the emergence of the type of life which is possible and desirable.

This prophecy of the society of the future is more difficult in periods of social stress. In many communities there is much pressure against believing in possibilities for the improvement of our life. In fact, it sometimes would seem to be inferred that the individual who is not entirely satisfied with the inadequacies, the injustice, the suffering, and the class and race and national conflict, must be un-American and unpatriotic. But all this does not deny the fact that educational leaders should have a vision of what is possible and desirable in our democratic society. In fact, I would say that the most serious challenge to the educational leader is his own complacency, his failure to acquaint himself with conditions and trends in society, and his failure to define educational goals toward which he will strive. One cannot develop vision in others if he lacks vision himself.

A second major problem of education deals with the selection, organization, and handling of the staff. The general competence, cultural outlook, and professional understanding of the staff are of critical importance in carrying forward a desirable program. With increased importance being attached to the development of interests and mental health of students, personality characteristics of teachers have recently received more attention. Salaries continue to be an important administrative problem not only because of their effect on the competence of the people attracted to the profession but because of the desirability of teachers' incomes being sufficient for them to live on a cultural level which will enable them to develop and maintain attractive personal characteristics. School administration is especially concerned because of social strains and stresses, in the matter of security for teachers. Academic freedom has become a concern for teachers of all grade levels. Educational organizations have been slow to recognize as one of their legitimate functions the defense of teachers' freedom to carry forward appropriate instruction and to enjoy the full rights of citizens.

More attention is being given to the participation of the total professional staff in shaping educational policy. Where teachers play an active part in determining school policies, the administrator becomes the leader of the professional group. Such a program is likely to lead to sounder policies. Equally important, it should put new life and interest into the teacher group. In a democracy, the school ought to be one of the first social institutions to practice the democratic method of cooperative living.

The third major problem of school administration involves the financing of the educational program. The cost of education constitutes a very im-

portant part of the total tax load. Extensions in other types of public service during the depression have caused the schools to suffer from a general reaction to public expenditures. Further, our taxing system is inadequate or maladjusted. The source of educational revenues is an important concern of the profession. In this connection, it becomes important that educators cooperate with other agencies in a unified program to secure adequate support for all desirable public activities.

The fourth group of administrative problems deals with the shaping of conditions within the school. It seems more difficult to make changes in the administrative machinery of education than in the program of instruction. Too frequently the former reflects a discarded educational philosophy, and in some cases it actually interferes with the development of a modern educational program. We cannot expect teachers to provide effective instruction in a situation made unfavorable by disturbing administrative features. We ask the teacher to develop acceptable forms of motivation in the classroom and sometimes continue administrative motivations which interfere with the effectiveness of the teacher's work. We ask teachers to teach children instead of subjects, but sometimes hold administrative conditions which practically force the teacher to ignore the needs of the students and to hold to a subject matter program. It is important that administrative features be evaluated and modified to bring them in harmony with the new program of education.

[*Grayson N. Kefauver is Dean of the School of Education, Leland Stanford University. Reported from the* Social Frontier, *IV (December, 1937), 88-91.*]

SENIORS of the Garfield Heights High School, Cleveland, Ohio, graded the faculty and the school on their effectiveness last June, according to the *Nation's Schools*. Sociology was the most popular subject while English was least liked and history was a close second. Teacher qualities most admired were fairness, honesty, and personality in the order named with sense of humor running a fairly close fourth. For the "things" which had given them the most satisfaction nearly all mentioned either clubs or extra-curricular activities. A third said high school education failed because it was impractical.

EXTENDING DEMOCRACY TO SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

FRANK E. BAKER

In the American Teacher

IF American Democracy is to persist in the future it must extend its control to every phase of American life. American society cannot endure divided against itself, politically democratic and economically autocratic. Either it must become all democratic or it will become all autocratic. And it is doubly necessary that the practices of democracy be extended into all phases of education. The existing administration of education in democratic America is autocratic from top to bottom, controlled by an employer-minded board, administered by an employer-minded superintendent, and taught by teachers who rule their wards as autocratically as a Czar.

Before there can be any real democracy in the schools the whole concept of their control and administration must be changed. The best statement of the democratic function of a board of education that I have read was made by President Hutchins of the University of Chicago:

"If ideally a university is a group of professors, what is a board of trustees? A board of trustees is a body of public-spirited citizens who believe in the aims of the professors; namely, the development of education and the advancement of knowledge. They have undertaken to relieve them of two responsibilities they cannot carry: the responsibility of managing their property and the responsibility of interpreting them to and defending them from the public. They fix the salary scale in order to make sure that the university's money is not squandered. They find out all about the faculty in order to interpret them to the public. But they have renounced for all practical purposes any right to pass on their qualifications to be professors. The faculty is not working for the trustees; the trustees are working for the faculty. The analogy of business or what an employer may do in business is therefore inapplicable."

If this concept is correct, and I think it is, then school boards are not employers. The teachers are not employed by the board; they are employed by society and are responsible only to it, under the code of ethics of the profession to which they belong. The teachers are not working for the board; rather the board is working for the teachers, the members having been chosen by society to interpret the schools to their constituents and to do a type of work that the teachers cannot and should not be called upon to do.

But it may be said that society is the employer and that the power of employment is delegated to the board. This is true, but the employment should be made and continued according to standards set up by the

profession of teaching. The functions of the board should be exercised according to rules formulated by the profession. When the profession of teaching has become as highly developed as it should be in a democracy, education will be controlled by teachers, just as law is controlled by lawyers and medicine by doctors.

The dualism that has grown up in American education between administration and teaching has been fatal, not only to democracy but to the standing of the administrator. It has made him a puppet of the employer group and robbed him of all freedom. Further, his complete separation from the teaching function has taken him out of the atmosphere of scholarship and pretty nearly robbed him of all claim to intellectual respectability.

Behind the confusion in the public mind in regard to the position and function of school administrators is the idea that administrators represent the board and not the teachers. But according to the democratic concept, administrators represent the teachers to the board; in fact, they are teachers, and should never have been separated from the teaching function. Still further back of the question is the employer attitude—the idea of two camps bargaining with each other; in one, the board and the administrators, in the other the teachers. But in the first place, there should be no separate camps, and under the democratic concept of administration there would not be. And granted that the employer attitude has created a gulf between the board and the teachers, there is no doubt where the administrator belongs. He is fundamentally a teacher, selected to interpret the teachers to the board.

The first step in the cure of this unfortunate dualism is to restore all administrators to the teaching function. In the case of principals and supervisors, this could be done at once. Most of the principal's work is routine, and could be done better by trained secretaries, and the best method of supervision is the demonstration of good teaching.

Democracy in school administration means that no fundamental educational policy shall be adopted except by common agreement among the administrators and teachers involved. But democratic administration will avail nothing unless it produces democratic teaching. It must create the freedom and the incentive to carry democracy into every activity of the classroom. The schools must become a laboratory of democracy, in which American youth will grow in the responsibilities of and capacities for democracy by experiencing it.

[*Frank E. Baker is President of the State Teachers College at Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Reported from the* American Teacher, *XXII (September-October, 1937), 25-27.*]

MENTAL-HYGIENE IMPLICATIONS OF NONATTENDANCE

EDWARD E. HARKAVY

In Mental Hygiene

THE city of New York has a school population of one and a quarter million in its public, private, and parochial schools. Of this number, from five to ten thousand are classified as persistent truants, while from ten to twenty thousand more stay at home for unlawful cause, with the consent of their parents. If we take New York city as a representative sample of the total school population, our inferences are likely to be accurate.

Of all reported absences in New York city, 60 percent of the absentees claim that they could not come to school because of physical illness. Furthermore, the number of times that illness is claimed as an excuse increases with the age of the absentee. From the medical point of view, nothing that we know about childhood diseases would lead us to expect such a phenomenon; in fact, we should expect the opposite. Clearly the claiming of illness as an excuse for nonattendance may be an act of evasion. So obvious is this fact that the New York State Department of Education, in its Rules of Procedures and Forms, specifically warns the teacher about it.

If children try in increasing numbers to stay away from school, the longer they are in the school system, we are justified in believing that there is something about school that they do not like. Why do so many children hate to go to school?

It is true that the average age at which crimes of violence are committed is 19 years; that the average age for all crimes is 21 years; and that most of these young criminals hated to go to school. It is also true that adult maladjustment, adult neurosis, and unhappiness, are frequently derived from the elements of early life, of which school forms a large part. But if we try to include all these facts, our problem becomes staggering in its immensity.

The medical approach.—No one needs to be told that a child who is obviously sick does not belong in the classroom. He is distracted with suffering, his intelligence is blunted, he cannot pay attention. But what of the child who is sick and does not know it and whom we do not recognize as being sick? Such a child cannot do what we expect him to do. If we persist in calling him lazy, instead of calling in a physician, it may be some time before his malady is diagnosed. In consequence, treatment and convalescence may be prolonged until the child falls into the habit of being taken care of tenderly, with indulgence if he happens to misbehave. When he finally returns to school, he faces the discouragement of being behind the rest of his classmates. And yet we ask ourselves:

Is this the only insight we need? Why do so many physically sound children hate to come to school? There must be other factors that bear on the problem.

The psychiatric approach.—Child conduct can be analysed in terms of the emotions, such as love, hate, and desire. Badly adjusted children are usually found to be emotionally twisted. Accompanying inappropriate desires, or conflicts between love and hate, is a greater or less degree of anxiety, of causeless fear. It has been said that childhood is the period in which we fear things that can never happen. So far as conduct is concerned, a child's anxiety or fear may cause him to withdraw in shyness; or it may on the contrary cause him to overact, to be boisterous and badly behaved, in an effort to make a "big shot" of himself, just because he feels so anxious and insecure. If we can assist the child to settle the conflict within himself, he will not then have to withdraw in shyness, or try to make a "big shot" of himself. The manner in which a child handles his impulses is obviously restricted. A great deal depends on what his parents and playmates and teachers are willing to put up with. At school, the influencing factor is the teacher.

The psychological approach.—If a child is unable to learn a subject, he is treated as inferior to the child who can learn. The inference is that a child who is made to feel inferior will try to make up for the lack of respect for himself. One way he may choose is to evade his inferiority altogether by staying away from the one place where it is most emphasized, namely, school.

Just how can the teacher bring about gross effects on large numbers of children at a time? I offer the following suggestions:

1. Their activity at chosen games is a phantasy, but that does not make it unreal to them. Let the children know that there is room for them in the world, plenty of room! Let them know that science is open, daring, and free, that records are made only to be broken, and that they can attempt to break any record they may take a fancy to work on. Let their school activities be as exciting and adventurous as life itself.

2. The future awaits its conquerors; the future consists mostly of time; give the children their time. As adults, we have a sense of time that is different from the sense of time in children. But granted that time is precious, and that the moment which is past can never be recalled, is it quite fair to saddle our children with this grim sense? Must we be impatient with children who resist our effort to make them conform with our notions of what is important?

3. To give a child his time means that we should not treat him as if he had nothing else in life to do than obey our orders and answer our questions. We are particularly apt to insist on attentiveness when we

hold official positions. But if a child is completely attentive to a teacher, he cannot be attentive to his own thoughts. He becomes your servant, instead of a potential creator.

4. Children will do anything for a grown-up whom they like. If they find no one whom they like well enough to follow and obey gladly, they may fall into an attitude in which they neither like nor dislike, but just do what is ordered. The child who does not become docile under such circumstances may revolt, fight back, kick, and use bad language. He will brashly try his strength against yours in the classroom; so may his docile brother, though timidly. To lessen the defiance of the one and build the aggressiveness of the other, let each get away with something from time to time. In time your two charges will not be likely to be found in the clutches of a policeman, or, what may be worse, in the camp of a political demagogue.

5. The main duty of a teacher is to teach. Whether we like it or not, the business of teaching involves a host of human relationships. Children are rewarded and punished; they are well-behaved and eager; or they are troublesome and dull. The teacher in her turn, as the result of the accumulation of the day's incidents, is invigorated and happy, or she is angry and tired. In this latter classroom, where teacher and children are obviously hating the whole procedure, a simple fact is noticeable. The teacher is trying to coerce her children into a frame of conduct that will enable her to teach, and the children are resisting. If you overpower a child in the classroom, he will invent a world in which he overcomes you.

One's life is peculiarly one's own when one has invented it. If a child can find no success or esteem or love in the world as it is, he may use the device that was so helpful in the classroom—that of inventing his own world. This device can be gravely dangerous. For as the child who resorts to it grows up, if things go wrong, he is likely to retreat into the safety of the self-invented world that he was once forced to create. He turns from reality because it is unpleasant. This is the breeding-ground for all of the nervous diseases of civilization, and for the most, if not all, of adult maladjustment and unhappiness. The teacher who conducts a happy classroom is not merely a good teacher. She is performing a great service of prevention.

[*Edward E. Harkavy, M.D., was formerly psychiatrist at the Bureau of Attendance, Board of Education, New York City. Reported from* Mental Hygiene, *XXI (October, 1937), 608-18.*]

MARRIED OR SINGLE?

D. W. PETERS

In the Nation's Schools

THIS study seeks to disclose objective evidence on the relative teaching effectiveness of married and single women teachers through controlled study of the learning progress of pupils taught by the total population of married women teachers in one state (Virginia) and to show trends and evaluate school board policies in the United States which restrict or bar the employment of married women teachers. Revealing data are presented on practically every phase of the married teacher controversy.

If marriage of the woman teacher does not involve a change of residence to another county or city, she may remain in her teaching position in less than 60 percent of the school systems in the United States, according to data available. If, however, marriage results in a change of residence to another county or city, the woman teacher is barred from the practice of her profession in approximately 80 percent of the school systems of the country. During the last ten years the trend has been against the employment of married women teachers.

No state is on record as having passed legislation bearing directly on the employment of married women teachers. The power of the school board to terminate a woman teacher's contract because of her marriage has been tested in the appellate courts of many states with the result that some general legal principles have been established. They may be stated as follows:

1. In the absence of limitations on teacher employment by statute law, a school board can determine its own employment policies on the marital status of women.

2. Teachers under permanent tenure by statutory enactment are protected against school-board rules providing for termination of services on account of marriage.

3. When the statute specifies causes for which a teacher may be dismissed, a board rule setting up marriage of a woman teacher as an additional cause is not valid.

4. In the absence of statutory provisions to the contrary, marriage of a woman teacher is not in itself grounds for dismissal.

5. In the absence of a statutory provision to the contrary, a by-law, reservation in the contract, or board rule to dismiss a woman teacher on account of marriage may be legally enforced.

6. If a woman teacher misrepresents marital status in order to enjoy benefits of employment, such misrepresentation constitutes fraud.

The measured achievement (in point scores) of pupils taught by married women teachers exceeded the measured achievement of pupils taught by single teachers by .88 $\pm$ 29

when the married and single teachers were equivalent in age, training, and experience.

The total average difference between the ratings of women teachers with and without marital status and equivalent in age, training, and experience is too small to be significant when the two groups are rated by superintendents. Such difference as exists is in favor of the unmarried.

When the judgments of the superintendent, supervisor, and principal are combined into a single rating for each teacher, the differences in ratings received by married and single women teachers are too small to be significant. A small total average exists in favor of the married teachers. The average ratings of principals tend to be higher for married women teachers than for single women teachers, but the difference is too small to be significant. The average ratings of supervisors tend to be higher for married women teachers than for single women teachers, but the difference is too small to be significant.

When married women teachers are equivalent to single women teachers in age, training, and experience, and are teaching in like situations, the following differences occur according to reports of the two groups:

The married group exceeds the single group in average number of years in the same system by one year; in average number of years in the same position by a half year; in average number of days absent on account of personal illness by .16 day per session; in average number of days absent on account of illness in the family by .02 day per session; in average number of semester hours' credit earned in summer school by one-fourth of one semester hour; in average number of semester hours' credit earned through college extension classes and correspondence courses by .10 and .12 of one semester hour, respectively; approximate time spent in preparation specifically for classroom teaching by .26 hour per week; and for directing out-of-class activities by .06 hour per week; in average number of out-of-class activities directed by .38; in average number of individuals wholly dependent on them for support by .11; in average number of individuals partially dependent on them for support by .32; amount of time spent in household duties by 2¼ hours per week; in the forms of recreation participated in by .02 percent; in positions of leadership in professional organizations by 5 percent; in organized community activities by 27 percent.

The single group exceeds in the average number of visits per month to homes of pupils by .19; in hours spent in social diversion by one hour per week, and in resentment of the amount of out-of-school time which teaching exacts by 10 percent.

This study produced no evidence that justifies a policy of discrimination against married women teachers as a class. If any relationship exists

between marital status and teaching effectiveness, such relationship is without adequate significance to justify its use as a determining factor in fixing employment policies. Employment policies are unworthy of the children for whom they are made if they do not eliminate incompetent, neglectful, and inefficient teachers. By the same standard such policies must conserve for the classroom the best existing talent and training. A blanket rule that arbitrarily eliminates individuals as a class levies a high tariff on training and talent and such rule should find reason for existence in unprejudiced sustaining evidence.

[*D. W. Peters is Director of Instruction, Virginia State Board of Education, Richmond. Reported from the* Nation's Schools, *XX (December, 1937), 41-42.*]

THE principles adopted by the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education on the "Care and Education of Youth" are as follows:

1. It being understood that young people should receive formal education or training at least until the age of 16, the Commission accepts the principle that society has a further, peculiar, and increasing responsibility for the education, welfare, and development of young people up to the age at which they may be able to enter gainful occupations.

2. "An education for the common life," with a core of common materials for all, but adapted to the varying abilities and aptitudes of youth, should be the basis for the formal educational program.

From the end of the period of formal education to the age of 21, the responsibility may be met by less formal and more flexible means. After the age of 21, the responsibility of society may become a special part of its relation to adults generally.

It is obvious that the time must come when the individual accepts the primary responsibility for his own education and welfare. Economic and other conditions affect this period. Under existing conditions the ages suggested above are believed to be proper.

3. The problems arising out of the acceptance of these principles are: (*a*) that of the necessity of building new curriculums in the schools and the organization of the educational system to meet modern needs; (*b*) that of the creation of appropriate agencies for less formal training; and (*c*) that of financing the program.

NEW AREAS IN INDUSTRIAL ARTS

R. A. HINDERMAN
In Education

IMPROVEMENTS and innovations in the industrial arts curriculum have been the rule rather than the exception during the past decade. Skill and the vocational aspects of industrial arts have been stressed in the past and will doubtless continue to be important, but it seems well to consider some of the newer areas of the industrial arts program that are rising to importance.

One of these is the development of the pupil's understanding of the complex mechanical aspects of the environment. In their industrial arts courses students can develop a working industrial background through a study of the mechanical aspects of the environment. Industrial intelligence is required if individuals are to adjust themselves satisfactorily to such devices and situations as using automatic coat lockers, operating an automobile, polishing floors, operating a furnace, running a motion picture projector, using shoe-shining machines, following traffic signals, using hand tools, operating modern household conveniences, taking moving pictures, recharging water softeners.

It also seems important for pupils to know that: molybdenum will soften the spring ride of automobiles; carbon makes steel brittle; chromium is the basis of stainless steel; tungsten alloys strengthen with heat; 83 different steels are used in automobiles; one pound of molten glass can be spun into a thread that will reach around the earth; glass alone is being used for 80-foot towers in new buildings; a new type of safety glass is 70 percent stronger because it bends; glass has been found to be an excellent road-surfacer and can be made from broken glass receptacles.

Information of this sort represents the kernel of an industrial background and is the basis for developing industrial intelligence.

A second area of emphasis has to do with the development of pupils' sensitivity to significant problems. Rapid technological changes have made the problem of helping students see relationships a very vital one. A few common mechanical problems follow:

Symptoms.—Odor of gas around stove.

Problem.—To shut off outlets, test for leak by soapsuds method, and tighten same.

Symptoms.—Clattering vibration of faucet.

Problem.—To remove worn ball or gasket and replace with a new one.

Symptoms.—Camp stove refuses to burn.

Problem.—To clean burners and unstop generator.

Symptoms.—Cold winds blowing in around doors and windows.

Problem.—To weatherstrip all doors and windows.

Industrial arts students should also study some of the following employment problems as they relate to the courses in which they are enrolled: scientific divisions of labor; production in industry; requirements necessary for success as a semi-skilled laborer; strikes and labor disputes and the various methods of settling them; economic status of employer and employee; bonus systems; industrial accidents and their prevention; labor unions; the effect of working conditions on health; the advantages and disadvantages of learning an occupation by the apprenticeship method.

A knowledge of such relationships as the foregoing is the basis of sensitivity to significant problems and enables the pupil to gain a more discriminating power of analysis.

A third new area to be considered is that of consumer education. The choice of commodities in terms of service and quality is always difficult and may be a really baffling problem. For example, in determining the quality of furniture it is necessary to consider all of the following: materials—solid cabinet wood, veneered with cabinet wood; finish—varnish, lacquer, shellac, and wax; fastenings—glue, screws, nails, and corrugated nails; joints—mortise and tenon, dovetailed, dowelled, miter, dado, splined, and butt; hardware—solid, plated, enameled, and plain steel.

It seems desirable for the pupil to learn to consider a commodity on the basis of cost, protection from unnecessary wear and damage, repairs and adjustments, and the qualities necessary for satisfaction.

The fourth new area is that of social attitudes, the development of tolerance and cooperation, which, in turn, are based on an understanding of social interdependence. The error of much present teaching is that pupils merely verbalize about social interdependence and do not really accept the fact and govern their actions accordingly.

[*R. A. Hinderman is Supervisor of Industrial Arts and Vocational Education, Denver, Colorado public schools. Reported from* Education, *XLVIII (November, 1937), 156-59.*]

FROM 1930 to 1934 the average annual cost per pupil in city school systems for general control decreased 16 percent; for instruction, 16.5 percent; for operation, 14.7 percent; for maintenance, 42.2 percent; for auxiliary agencies, 24 percent; for fixed charges, 4.4 percent; and for capital outlay, 88.4 percent.

THE TEACHER, THE EXPERT, AND CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

AUBREY A. DOUGLASS

In the Curriculum Journal

TEACHERS are a little tired of being "experted"; some are very tired of it; and some actively resent it. Rightly or wrongly, teachers believe that they are not wholly lacking in intelligence.

The curriculum expert, whether a member of the administrative staff or from outside the school system, does not claim to know everything; but his attitudes and actions may belie his words. The number of opinions he renders, the variety of questions he resolves, and the amount of advice he gives, do not as a usual thing signify a modest man.

The curriculum expert subscribes to "democratic" principles. School administrators do likewise. This probably means that in curriculum revision issues and policies are placed before the teachers for their consideration and opinion. In civic affairs, people ballot on the issue and the way they vote determines what is to be done. Perhaps this procedure is what teachers understand as democratic procedure; perhaps they expect it will be used when the expert announces that a democratic plan will be followed in curriculum improvement. But many curriculum experts and many administrators honestly subscribe to the principles of democracy in curriculum making or in school administration, and unwittingly violate in a wholesale manner the tenets to which they vow allegiance. Those interested in drawing out the best that is in teachers will guard against conscious or unconscious use of the discussion period as a means of fastening upon the group preconceived ideas or policies. More than one group of teachers has been schooled to react in a manner agreeable to the leader. And the expert may honestly desire to give teachers a voice in deciding problems; but he argues against all opposition, and because of his greater grasp of data and principles, or his greater power in debate, or because teachers recognize his authority, opposition is gradually stilled. Many teachers do not speak their minds for fear of ridicule or of more drastic consequences.

To call such a procedure democratic is to misuse the term. When teachers realize the inconsistency—and one may rest assured that they will—the position of the expert or administrator is not strengthened. It might have been better had nothing been said about democracy.

The curriculum and the school are as good as the teachers. Unless the program of improvement or revision is understood and endorsed, little difference will appear in the classrooms. The improvement is rarely as much as the expert or administrator fondly believes. When a wall of re-

sentment is built around a large percentage of the teachers, or when the interest of teachers is not gripped, results are poor.

In the process of curriculum improvement there is a place for the expert, provided he is an expert and provided further that he is able to challenge teachers. If he is able to accomplish this it will be because he sincerely regards teachers as colleagues, and not as somewhat helpless and hopeless persons who must be instructed. Such an attitude will enable the expert to recognize the immediate needs of teachers, just as he advises them to recognize the immediate needs of their pupils. As slow as progress may appear to be, the expert must be willing to start where the teachers are in their professional outlook and development. Progress will be made as rapidly as the teachers are able to move, and not much faster.

The expert must be willing to lay aside a preconceived idea of the form in which the curriculum is to be organized. In the first place, he may be wrong. In the second, he will lose time trying to convert the teachers. In the third, teachers will attach more importance to their immediate problems. And in the fourth place, no one, unless it was Herbart, ever set up a scheme that came to be accepted over a period of years. The expert must of course have a philosophy of education, and he should, of course, give much thought to the organization the curriculum will eventually take. He should not keep these things to himself; but he should not hand them ready-made to a group of teachers. Nor by any means should he cajole either teachers or himself into believing that some preordained plan was developed by the teachers.

Curriculum improvement begins at home, with the immediate tasks confronting the teachers. The expert is needed. But if he is to exert the type of influence he should exert it will be because he is a thorough student, and because he is able to apply to the problem of curriculum improvement the theory which he urges teachers to apply in the classroom.

[*Aubrey A. Douglass is Chief of the Division of Secondary Education, California State Department of Education. Reported from the* Curriculum Journal, *VIII (November, 1937), 305-9.*]

OF all school revenues in cities having a population of 10,000 or more, 73.7 percent came from city school taxes, 18.3 percent from the state, 4.7 percent from the county, 1.2 percent from tuition fees from other school districts, and 2.1 percent from other local sources.

IN DEFENSE OF THE LARGE HIGH SCHOOL

WALLACE A. MANHEIMER
In School and Society

THE large high school in New York City has come into existence partly as a result of the sudden increase in secondary school population and partly because of obvious economies in administration and plant operation—both factors that are mainly independent of basic educational philosophy. Indeed,, it has maintained its existence in the face of almost universal antagonism. It is rare to hear a voice raised in its defense, although it is presenting an opportunity for the reorganization of the offering that may well transform secondary education.

Unfortunately, the large high school has also become crowded. But the large high school must not be confused with the crowded high school. With all its faults, it is this writer's conviction that the large high school is creating an environment for a new and better day in universal secondary education.

Criticism has been leveled at the large high school on the ground that it is a factory, an educational mill, a sort of administrative monstrosity. It has been held inferior to the small school, where a more intimate association of teacher and pupil is supposed to exist, and where the principal may have an acquaintance, however casual, with many of the pupils. The hugeness of the school is regarded as a barrier preventing those intimacies between pupils and faculty which, if they could exist in fact, many suppose might exert a profound influence on the education of our youth. During the past 25 years the writer has taught and observed in both large and small high schools, and has never observed to any great degree that close contact between pupils and teacher which is claimed to supervene when the school is small. It should not be forgotten that while many a person can point to some teacher who has made a profound impression on his character, vocation, and success in life, the vast majority cannot record any such influences. That this intimacy is not necessarily a function of the size of the school should also not be forgotten. It is quite possible in the largest school for the same teacher, or at most two teachers, to follow a pupil during his entire high school career.

A small school is small in more ways than one. The limited size of the organization limits proportionately the differentiation of the offering, which, in turn, constricts the opportunities of the pupils. This is true both of the extra and the regular curriculum. Extra-curricular activities in small high schools are generally very limited and impoverished. Since the number of faculty advisors is small, diversity of activities is naturally diminished. In a large school, not only are there pupils

enough to fill diverse extra-curricular organizations, but the size of the staff insures the presence of faculty advisors whose interests range from ornithology to brass bands, and from athletics to chess.

In response to the needs of children and parents, and in spite of the opposition of many schoolmen, the vocational trend is determining the character of many of our schools. The small college preparatory high school, specializing in the humanities, is for all practical purposes obsolete. The curricula that have been provided for the "non-academic minded" pupils are usually regarded as makeshifts by the average principal of a general high school. These courses are merely ways for pupils to mark time while serving their obligatory terms of high school incarceration. It is time to lose patience with those who think that the traditional courses were right and the human product wrong. Those who complain about the pupils they receive from the lower school are demanding one of two things: either that the lower school teach certain types of pupils what they cannot learn, or that some other agency undertake the responsibility of dealing with these children. How ridiculous! This, and all other problems affecting the education of all children, are our job.

Actually, the aspiration of the non-academic child to secure an economic foothold in our social order has created a driving center of interest that transcends educational theory. And, without recourse to theory, the large cosmopolitan high school principal has had to resort to differentiation of the curriculum. The time has now arrived for the elevation of these bootleg courses to the dignity of full-fledged perpendicular curriculums, worthy of pursuit by pupils whose path to culture and to social integration lies in a different, but no less valuable, direction from that pursued by those who can get their training from the humanities.

It is obvious that the effective organization of curriculums should be the primary concern of educational administration. The use of the term "large" high school should be abandoned in favor of a functional definition of school size. This writer submits that the size of the school should be such that the principal can segregate into the various perpendicular curriculums sufficiently large-sized groups so that the pupils in each curriculum can be stratified on an ability basis.

If we apply this functional definition of proper high school size to a school of 3,000 pupils, having only five curriculums (academic, commercial, fine arts, mechanic arts, and home economics), each curriculum would have about 600 pupils, or an average of 75 pupils in each term. Obviously, this number is not large enough to permit stratification of pupils on an ability basis unless classes are made much smaller than is usual in this country. If the school

had twice that number, in a building or buildings adequately designed to house the pupils, it would have a better chance of success.

[*Wallace A. Manheimer is head of the Department of Health Education, Evander Childs High School, New York City. Reported from* School and Society, *XLVI (November 20, 1937), 641-50.*]

Current Quotations:

PAUL MONROE, President of the World Federation of Education Associations: "Frequent. . . . meetings with large numbers of those who attended the conference (Tokyo meeting of the W.F.E.A. last August) revealed the fact that the sympathy of the visiting teacher was in practical unanimity with the Chinese. The greatest tragedy of the whole situation to the writer is that the fine and wholehearted achievement of the purpose of the Federation in developing good will between the visitors and the hosts was practically lost through the outbreak of the hostilities."

O. R. YODER, Assistant Medical Superintendent, State Hospital, Ypsilanti, Michigan: "A personality can easily be educated to be insane because mental order and disorder come from the same source. . . One-half of our cases of mental disease can be prevented by a proper educational program which can be brought about by cooperation between parents and teachers."

RAY LYMAN WILBUR, President of Stanford University: "The junior college is a life saver for the American university. It offers the chance for the university to get on top of the educational system instead of being engulfed in it and hampered by mass necessities."

JOHN W. STUDEBAKER, U. S. Commissioner of Education, while referring to the new series of national educational broadcasts on Latin American civilization and culture: "This will probably be the first time in history that one government has spent time and money on a sustained effort to help its own citizens appreciate the ideals of peoples across the border."

MILDRED H. MCAFEE, President of Wellesley College: "I have never been more conscious of the need to justify ourselves in a world where the average income of a family of five is less than the expenses of one Wellesley student in a single year."

EDUCATIONAL POSSIBILITIES OF MOTION PICTURES

MARK A. MAY

In the Journal of Educational Sociology

THE motion picture as a demonstrated fact dates from April 14, 1894, when a peep-show parlor in New York invited the world to come and see Edison's kinetoscope. It was Mr. Edison's concept in all his inventions that there was useful work to be done in the world, and he was only slightly interested in anything that was not in the larger sense practical. In inventing the motion picture he was not thinking of entertainment, which incidentally came to be the first and remains the most important utilization of the motion picture mechanism. About 1914, commenting on *The Birth of a Nation* and the glowing scope of the industry, Edison remarked: "It is a big business now—it will be bigger yet. But away ahead is real work in education. That is the big ocean of opportunity. Educators are book-minded now, but they will find the motion picture in time."

It looks as though Mr. Edison missed his guess. During 1936 the Hollywood companies produced approximately 2,500 films. During the same year probably not more than 200 or 300 educational films were produced in the United States. Today there are approximately 18,000 motion picture theaters in the United States with an estimated daily attendance of over 10,000,000; at the same time, of approximately 100,000 schoolhouses which are equipped with electricity not more than 10,000 have motion picture projectors, many of which are obsolete. Less than 1,000 of these projectors are sound machines, and only 600 or 700 are 16 mm, the standard modern instrument for classroom instruction.

One of the most obvious reasons for this situation is that theaters are run for profit while schools are not. A second reason is that schools are conservative. While the teaching values of motion pictures have been amply demonstrated, the film is still regarded as a luxury and not a necessity. A third reason is the lack of teachers who are trained to use films effectively. A fourth is the lack of a reservoir of films that have been properly evaluated and coordinated. Of the 10,000 existing educational films the great majority are "industrials," made for advertising purposes; not more than 1,500 are relevant to the public school curriculum. And not less than 500 agencies, among whom there is little or no cooperation, are engaged in the distribution of the so-called educational films.

The schools today seem to be circumscribed by a vicious circle. The school authorities feel that they are not justified in buying equipment, or in training their teachers to use films, until such time as there is available an adequate supply of educationally useful films. The large film produc-

ers, on the other hand, are not willing to enter wholesale production of suitable films until more schools are equipped to use such products. Some way must be found to convert this circle into an ascending spiral.

Certain recent developments promise a solution to this problem. For many years educators have been impressed with the fact that many theatrical films have great potential educational values. One might mention such pictures as *Cavalcade, Sequoia, The Covered Wagon, The Life of Louis Pasteur.* Everyone has been hoping that some day the schools would have access to this reservoir of materials. I am happy to tell you that that day has arrived.

The first steps were taken 4 years ago when the Committee on Social Values in Motion Pictures obtained the use of 20 films for the development of a series of pictures on character education. The Committee cut excerpts from each film, selecting the parts that contained a life situation involving an important social or moral problem. A series of one- and two-reel pictures was made from these excerpts. This "Secrets of Success" series was widely and gratefully received. It has demonstrated that educational materials can be extracted from theatrical films in a way that is exceedingly powerful and useful. The Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association is at present conducting experiments, using the Secrets of Success series together with other photoplays, to further determine the best methods of cutting and re-editing theatrical films for school use.

Another pioneer development, distinct from but allied to the two just mentioned, is that the producers have opened their vaults of short subjects to an advisory committee of educators, who are invited to come and see what is there of educational value. About 15,000 "shorts" have been produced since the invention of sound on film. It is estimated that 2,000 of these could be used "as is" in the schools, and another 2,000 or more could be used after certain changes. The terms and conditions under which these films may be released to schools have not been worked out. Both the Advisory Committee and the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America are anxious that the best interests of both the schools and the motion picture distributors shall be duly safeguarded.

In my opinion, the most important reason that the use of motion pictures in the schools has lagged so far behind developments in the entertainment field is that educators have fallen into the habit of thinking of the film as a "visual aid" and have therefore not foreseen its full educational possibilities. Remember that in the motion picture are combined the two great channels of learning—sight and sound—which enriched by color, music, and dramatic effects present the lessons of school and life

with a power and vitality unequaled by any other medium. Among the cardinal objectives of education as set up by the National Education Association a few years ago are good citizenship, moral character, worthy home membership, sound physical and mental health, sensitivity to social problems, aesthetic appreciation, mental power, vocational orientation, cultural efficiency and resourcefulness, and creative ability. Surely no one would contend that the conventional subject-matter curriculum is the only, or even the most effective, road to these goals. Indeed, the recent appearance of so many specialized forms of education—character education, health education, vocational education, etc.—is evidence of a growing belief that more direct roads should be found. Everyone knows how difficult it is to build character, citizenship, health, and aesthetic appreciation through lesson assignments and reading materials alone. More powerful tools must be found. Our experience leads me to believe that the motion picture may be an important part of the answer.

[*Mark A. May is Director of the Institute of Human Relations, Yale University. Reported from the* Journal of Educational Sociology, *II (November, 1937), 149-60.*]

WHILE delivering his valedictory on retirement Professor William H. Kilpatrick of Teachers College, Columbia University, made the following predictions concerning the American education of the future:

1. It seems probable that our country will continue to keep church and state separate. However, we shall much better than heretofore take care of the spiritual side of child growth.

2. The national government will very soon give aid to public education, primarily to equalize educational opportunity throughout the nation. Danger, however, will lurk in the step that national control (particularly of the curriculum) may seek to follow national support.

3. Adult education must become a recognized part of the public educational enterprise. Three lines of adult education seem to stand out: re-education along vocational lines; education for leisure; and, principally, study of current social problems.

4. The junior college bids fair to become well-nigh universal.

5. Competitive college athletics have, in great probability, passed the peak of popularity.

LIFE EARNINGS IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS

HAROLD F. CLARK

In Occupations

VOCATIONAL counselors have long needed a comprehensive report summarizing the material available on life earnings in the various occupations. The estimates in the following table are based essentially on a composite of every study that has been made covering these fields. A total of more than 4,400 investigations have been combined to get the figures reported.

The corrective estimates in the last column, however, are necessary to give some indication of the relative accuracy of the different figures. For instance, in the case of public school teaching, a figure of ± 5 per cent is given as being the limits within which the true figure probably lies. We know that this low differential is reliable because we have reasonably accurate figures for practically all the nation's teachers. The situation is quite different in other fields, however.

Earnings in some professions reach a fair level in later life but the income in early years of practice is low. Such variations are presented by the figures in column one which give the present value of the average earnings during a working life.

INCOME IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES—1920-1936

Occupations	Present Value of Average Earnings for a Working Lifetime—in Dollars	Average Earnings in Dollars per Year	Estimates in Percentage of the Limits within Which True Figure Probably Lies
Medicine	$108,000	$4,850	± 20
Law	105,000	4,730	± 35
Dentistry	95,400	4,170	± 25
Engineering	95,300	4,410	± 20
Architecture	82,500	3,820	± 40
College Teaching	69,300	3,050	± 10
Social Work	51,000	1,650	± 15
Journalism	41,500	2,120	± 45
Ministry	41,000	1,980	± 15
Library Work	35,000	2,020	± 25
Public School Teaching	29,700	1,350	± 05
Skilled Trades	28,600	1,430	± 15
Nursing	23,300	1,310	± 10
Unskilled Labor	15,200	795	± 20
Farming	12,500	580	± 15
Farm Labor	10,400	485	± 15

Harold F. Clark is Professor of Educational Economics, Teachers College, Columbia University.
Reported from Occupations, *XVI (December, 1937), 221-24.*

PERSONALITIES: **Charles H. Judd** of the University of Chicago is serving as chairman of the Committee on Survey of Governmental Relations to Research of the National Resources Committee. . . . **Jack W. Dunlap,** associate professor of education at Fordham University, has joined the faculty of the University of Rochester. Dr. Dunlap is editor of the *Journal of Educational Psychology*. . . . **Harold H. Threlkeld,** former principal of the Englewood, N. J., high school, is now assistant in student personnel under the direction of the Progressive Education Association at the University of Denver. . . . **Mrs. J. I. Ray,** Fremont, Neb., has been appointed superintendent of the Dodge City, Neb., schools to complete the term of her husband who died recently. . . . **Parke H. Schoch,** associate superintendent of the Philadelphia, Pa., schools, has resigned because of ill health. . . . **Wiley G. Brooks,** former superintendent of the Burlington, Iowa, schools, has been made president of Illinois Wesleyan University. . . . **George E. Davis,** former principal of the Keokuk, Iowa, high school, has been appointed assistant professor of secondary education at Purdue University. . . . **Edwin C. Broome** has retired from the superintendency of the Phildelphia, Pa., schools. . . . **Paul R. Morrow** of the University of Georgia has been granted a leave of absence to become director of curriculum research for the state department of education of Georgia. . . . **W. H. McDonald,** superintendent of schools at Trenton, Mo., has resigned to accept the presidency of Culver-Stockton College. . . **John P. McConnell,** president of the State Teachers College, East Radford, Va., has resigned because of ill health and **J. P. Whitt** has been made president. . . . **Louis M. Heil** has been appointed associate professor of education at the Ohio State University. . . . **H. V. Stout** is now head of the education department of the Kearney, Calif., State Teachers College. . . . **N. Conger,** former state director of teacher training for Oklahoma, has been made dean of the School of Education of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College in place of Herbert Patterson who has been appointed dean of administration. . . . **Harley Z. Wooden,** editor of the *Journal of Exceptional Children* and formerly principal of the Ann J. Kellogg School, Battle Creek, Mich., has been appointed curriculum associate for the program for exceptional children of the Michigan state department of public instruction. . . . **Hazel Floyd,** former grade supervisor at Hammond, Ind., has been appointed director of elementary education, Nacogdoches, Texas, State Teachers College. . . . **Charles R. Foster,** associate superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa., and former president of the Indiana, Pa., State Teachers College, died on December

14. . . . Formal inaugural exercises for **Rufus C. Harris**, tenth president of Tulane University, will be conducted January 18. . . . **Donald M. Erb** of Stanford University has been appointed president of the University of Oregon, replacing **Clarence V. Boyer**. . . . **C. W. Smith**, superintendent of public instruction for Nevada, died recently.

SUBJECT divisions have been abandoned in the Calumet High School, Chicago, and the pupil works on a problem of his own choice which includes material from several fields. The school day is divided into interest periods instead of subject periods. A group of 120 freshmen was chosen at random for the experiment which was begun last year and is being repeated this year.

RADIO broadcasts for school use will be studied over a five-year period in a program under the direction of I. Keith Tyler of the Bureau of Educational Research of the Ohio State University. A grant of $69,000 has been made by the General Education Board to finance the first two years of the project.

THE Michigan State Department of Public Instruction has issued an unusual bulletin entitled *What Does Research Say?* which answers specific questions of teachers in elementary schools. Questions in 16 divisions of elementary education are answered by experts.

A CHARTER has been granted to Paul Smith's College of Arts and Sciences, a new type of junior college at St. Regis lake, New York, in the heart of the Adirondack mountains. It is reported that the late Phelps Smith left approximately $2,500,000 to finance the institution which will endeavor to provide educational facilities for residents of the locality who are now prevented from attending college because of lack of facilities and funds.

TWO months after its opening, the new School for Workers at the University of Wisconsin reports an enrolment of 1,100 students. It is the first permanent state-wide workers' school in this country.

A NEW technical high school building, completely equipped, has been given to the public schools of Canton, Ohio, by H. H. Timken, local industrialist.

WASHINGTON State College at Pullman has instituted what is said to be the first course in driver education in a college curriculum.

AN Encyclopedia of Educational Research is being compiled under the auspices of the American Council on Education with Professor Walter S. Monroe of the University of Illinois as editor. A number of organizations are assisting in the promotion of the project with contributions of money and facilities.

THE American Youth Commission has recently issued a directory entitled *Youth-Serving Organizations* which describes in detail 330 national associations in the field.

THE first building of the new University of Berlin will be the Faculty of Military Science, the cornerstone for which was recently laid by Chancellor Adolph Hitler.

THE New York City Board of Education for the first time has established a series of radio broadcasts, using the municipal station, WNYC. High school students participate in the programs which originate in a studio in the Brooklyn Technical High School.

IN an effort to interest the most promising young people in teaching as a career, "Future Teachers of America" groups are being advocated by the Horace Mann Centennial Committee of the NEA. The purpose is to encourage only those to enter teaching who in purpose, aptitude, and personal character offer the best promise of becoming worthy teachers.

THE State University of Iowa radio station, WSIU, and WOI, the Iowa State College station, have joined together to rebroadcast each other's programs, including classroom courses and service broadcasts. This is said to be the first two-way educational network in this country.

THE American Physical Education Association recently merged with the Department of School Health and Physical Education of the National Education Association. The new organization is known as the American Association for Health and Physical Education, a Department of the NEA, and the association offices will be moved from Ann Arbor, Michigan, to the NEA building in Washington, D. C.

TEACHERS College, Columbia University, has inaugurated a series of courses for the wives of future school administrators.

THE United Federal Workers of America, a CIO affiliate, is sponsoring a Federal Workers School of the District of Columbia, offering for a nominal tuition fee courses to government employes and others in 18 subjects from economics to modern dancing. This is said to be the first instance of such activity in a government workers' union.

ARKANSAS provided its public school students with free textbooks this fall under a recent legislative enactment.

THE National Geographic Society has recently issued a two-volume *Book of Birds* which will be of interest to natural science teachers. The society has published the book and made it available at cost because of its permanent educational value. It can be secured only from the society.

AN increase this year of 3.6 percent over last year in the number of full-time students attending accredited colleges and universities is reported by Dr. Raymond Walters in his annual study of registrations in *School and Society*.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

January 14-15, 1938, Middle Atlantic States Regional Conference of the Progressive Education Association, Washington, D. C.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

February 17-19, International Council for Exceptional Children, Buffalo, N. Y.

February 23-26, National Association of Deans of Women, Atlantic City, N. J.

February 23-26, American Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, Atlantic City, N. J.

February 23-27, Annual National Conference, Progressive Education Association, New York City.

February 26-March 2, Annual Convention, Department of Secondary-School Principals, N.E.A., Hotel Traymore, Atlantic City, N. J.

February 26-March 3, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

March 11-12, 14th Annual Junior High School Conference, New York University.

April 19-23, 45th Annual Convention, Association for Childhood Education, Netherlands Plaza Hotel, Cincinnati, Ohio.

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